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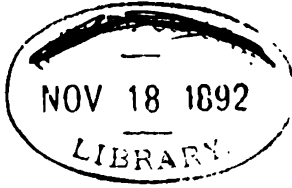


THE
Addresses and Journal of Proceedings
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IN
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NOTICE.

The Board of Directors at their last meeting in Philadelphia neglected to appoint a Committee on Publication. The undersigned is by the Constitution *ex-officio* chairman of such committee and hence has had to act alone. There has been a delay of about a month in getting out this volume in consequence of waiting for the plates of the portion in the reform spelling, the other printing being all done about the middle of December. It is hoped, however, that the interest that attaches to the volume in its present state will compensate for the delay. Several persons were late in sending in their addresses, reports, etc., or the printing might have been completed by the middle of November. On page 223 it is stated that the Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence at the Washington meetings in 1877 and 1879 published by the Bureau of Education not being the property of Association can not be bound with the volume and sent to members. It is a pleasure to state that 500 copies have been secured which will be bound with this volume. This number will be sufficient to supply all members with the full proceedings, but 500 copies of this volume will contain only the proceedings at Philadelphia.

W: D. HENKLE, Chairman,
of the Committee on Publication.

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GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

First Day's Proceedings.

MORNING SESSION.

The Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association was opened in the Girls' Normal-School Building, in Philadelphia, Pa., at 10½ o'clock, A. M., Tuesday, July 29th, 1879.

President JOHN HANCOCK called the Association to order and prayer was offered by the Rev. A. D. MAYO. The Association was then welcomed by Mayor WM. S. STOKELY in the following

ADDRESS.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen, Members of the National Educational Association.

I cordially welcome you to the City of Brotherly Love. It is fitting that you should celebrate the attainment of your majority in the city where your Association was organized twenty-one years ago, and I trust that your stay among us may be made very pleasant, and that your deliberations may tend to the advancement of the cause of popular education.

The perpetuation of a free government, and the stability of Republican Institutions can only be maintained by the education of those who are to become citizens, and from whom the country's rulers are to be chosen.

Your duties in ascertaining the best modes of conveying and imparting instruction to the youthful mind, fitting the recipients for the arduous duties of life, and so shaping and directing their studies that they may become useful and intelligent members of society, while a very pleasant task, is attended with grave responsibilities; and my earnest wish is that the present convention, under the guidance of Him from whom comes all knowledge, may be of great service in strengthening and refreshing those who teach, that they in turn may have enlarged opportunities and increased capabilities to impart knowledge to the rising generation.

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., then followed with the following

ADDRESS.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:

The pleasing privilege of giving you words of welcome and cordial greeting on behalf of the educational interests of Philadelphia has fallen upon me during the unavoidable absence of my friend Mr. Steel, President

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The most efficient means of conducting examinations.

On the qualifications of teachers.

On the best methods of classifying pupils, and arranging the studies to be pursued in Common Schools.

On the expediency of making the Course of Instruction in Common Schools so ample and various as to meet the wants of all classes of citizens.

How far military exercises and discipline may be profitably introduced into colleges.

On schools for educating teachers for the supply of common-school instruction.

On the most efficient mode of giving moral instruction in common schools.

On the evils resulting from the changes of teachers.

On the best method of governing schools.

On the proper ventilation of school-houses.

But the Western College of Teachers having been long dead, it occurred to leading educators of various locations to supplement the agencies of the American Institute and the several State Teachers' Associations by an organization broad enough to gather into itself the best thought of the whole country, and to enable its educators to unite their efforts for a common purpose. It seems eminently proper in this goodly city, the city of Franklin, wherein this Association had its birth, and in a sense attains its majority, to give a short sketch of its origin and work.

I am informed on good authority that the most active worker for the establishing of this Association was T. W. Valentine, recently deceased, at that time President of the New-York State Teachers' Association. The following call to the Teachers of the United States was written by D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts, and is dated May 15, 1857. So far as I know the copy before me is the only one in existence. For that reason, and for the more important one that it sets forth with conciseness the purposes of our Association, I reproduce it in full:

"The eminent success which has attended the establishment and operations of the several State Teachers' Associations in this country, is the source of mutual congratulations among all friends of popular education. To the direct agency and the diffused influence of these Associations, more, perhaps, than to any other cause, are due the manifest improvement of schools in all their relations, the rapid intellectual and social elevation of teachers as a class, and the vast development of public interest in all that concerns the education of the young.

"That the State Associations have already accomplished great good, and that they are destined to exert a still broader and more beneficent influence, no wise observer will deny.

"Believing that what has been done for States by State Associations may be done for the whole country by a National Association, we, the undersigned, invite our fellow-teachers throughout the United States to assemble in Philadelphia on the 26th day of August next, for the purpose of organizing a

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

"We cordially extend this invitation to all *practical teachers* in the

North, the South, the East, and the West, who are willing to unite in a general effort to promote the educational welfare of our country, by concentrating the wisdom and power of numerous minds, and by distributing among all the accumulated experience of all who are ready to devote their energies and contribute their means to advance the dignity, respectability, and usefulness of their calling; and who, in fine, believe that the time has come when the teachers of the nation should gather into one great Educational Brotherhood.

"As the permanent success of any association depends very much upon the auspices attending its establishment, and the character of the organic laws which it adopts, it is hoped that all parts of the Union will be largely represented at the inauguration of the proposed enterprise.

"T. W. VALENTINE,

"President New-York State Teachers' Association.

"D. B. HAGAR,

"President Massachusetts State Teachers' Association.

"W. T. LUCKY,

"President Missouri State Teachers' Association.

"J. TENNY,

"President New-Hampshire State Teachers' Association.

"J. G. MAY,

"President Indiana State Teachers' Association.

"W. ROBERTS,

"President Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association.

"C. PEASE,

"President Vermont State Teachers' Association.

"D. FRANKLIN WELLS,

"President Iowa State Teachers' Association.

"A. C. SPICER,

"President Wisconsin State Teachers' Association."

An extra of the *New-York Teacher*, then edited by James Cruikshank, contains the proceedings of the Convention which met in pursuance of this call in the Athenæum Building, Philadelphia, August 26, 1857. James L. Enos, of Iowa, was appointed temporary chairman, and William E. Sheldon, of Massachusetts, secretary. Messrs. Hagar, of Mass., Cann, of Georgia, and Challen, of Indiana, were appointed a committee to draft a constitution. The name of the Association under the constitution as adopted was "The National Teachers' Association." This name, in accordance with a more liberal provision subsequently adopted in regard to membership, was changed to the present one of National Educational Association. The qualifications for membership were as follows:

"Any gentleman who is regularly occupied in teaching in a public or private elementary school, college, or university, or who is regularly employed as a private tutor, as the editor of an educational journal, or as a superintendent of schools, shall be eligible to membership.

"Whenever a member of this Association shall abandon the profession of teaching, or the business of editing an educational journal, or superintending schools, he shall cease to be a member."

The reason membership was so carefully restricted to those engaged in the active work of instruction was doubtless to promote one of the leading objects of the Association, the building up of the teacher's calling into a profession. Like the American Institute, our Association did not recognize the equality of men and women in the profession, though it took a step in advance of the Institute in regard to the rights of the latter; for, whereas the Institute only accorded women the right of listening to the wise things made public by their brethren, our Association extended to them the additional privilege of presenting thoughts of their own, under a curious restriction, as will be seen from the article of the constitution relating to membership of women, which I quote:

"Ladies engaged in teaching may, on the recommendation of the Board of Directors, become honorary members and shall thereby possess the right of presenting, in the form of written essays (to be read by the secretary or any other member whom they may select), their views upon the subject assigned for discussion."

It is scarcely necessary to say that women possess, at the present, the same rights as men, both in this Association and in the American Institute.

Another article of our constitution was that after 1858 the meetings of the Association should be biennial.

There were in all ten States represented in the first meeting, viz:—Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Missouri, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and the District of Columbia. The number of members enrolled was 38. The teachers not already named who took an active part in the business and discussions of the meetings were J. W. BULKLEY and JAMES CRUIKSHANK, of New York; THOMAS GRANGER and J. W. BARRETT, of Illinois; N. R. LYNCH, of Delaware; E. W. WHELAN, of Missouri; J. D. GIDDINGS, of South Carolina; Z. RICHARDS, of the District of Columbia, and J. P. WICKERSHAM, H. C. HICKOK, and WILLIAM ROBERTS, of Pennsylvania. At the evening session, an address on the importance of the organization of a national association of *professional teachers*, prepared by Prof. WILLIAM RUSSELL, of Massachusetts, was read by T. W. VALENTINE, of New York. This seems to have been the only regular address made at the meeting.

The first election of officers under the constitution resulted in the choice of Z. RICHARDS of the District of Columbia, for President; T. W. VALENTINE of New York, for First Vice-President; J. W. BULKLEY of New York Secretary; and T. M. CANN of Delaware, Treasurer.

The first regular meeting under the constitution was held in Cincinnati, August, 1858, Z. RICHARDS, presiding. The attendance at this meeting, as at Philadelphia, was not large (73 members enrolled), the leading members, with a few exceptions, being from the East. But though small in numbers, it was great in ability and enthusiasm. HORACE MANN, then so near the close of his life and noble career, was one of the leading spirits of the occasion. This meeting demonstrated the stability of the Association, and with a few additional general facts, I take leave of its history. At the Cleveland meeting, held in August, 1870, the Association was reorganized, assuming its present name, and absorbing into itself as departments two other associations, namely, the American Normal-School Association and

the National Association of School Superintendents. Now, as it will be seen by glancing at our programme, the General Association has connected with it the following departments, viz:—

Department of Elementary Schools, Department of Higher Instruction, Department of Normal Schools, Department of School Superintendence, and the Department of Industrial Education. Besides these, we are glad this year to welcome to our meeting as another department that body of eminent and learned educators, known as the Spelling-Reform Association. I cannot, of course, speak for the Association, but my individual hope is that this temporary association may be made permanent.

This division into departments has enabled our Association to do vastly more work, and to do it better than could be possible, acting as a single body.

In its twenty-one years of existence the Association has held seventeen meetings, as follows:—

- Cincinnati (1858), Z. RICHARDS, D. C., President.
- Washington (1859), A. J. RICKOFF, Ohio, President.
- Buffalo (1860)—J. W. BULKLEY, New York, President.
- Chicago (1863)—J. D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts, President.
- Ogdensburg (1864)—W. H. WELLS, Illinois, President.
- Harrisburg (1865)—S. S. GREENE, R. I., President.
- Indianapolis (1866) J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania, President.
- Nashville (1868)—J. M. GREGORY, Illinois, President.
- Trenton (1869)—L. VAN BOKKELEN, Maryland, President.
- Cleveland (1870)—D. B. HAGAR, Massachusetts, President.
- St. Louis, (1871)—J. L. PICKARD, Illinois, President.
- Boston (1872)—E. E. WHITE, Ohio, President.
- Elmira (1873)—B. G. NORTHPROP, Connecticut, President.
- Detroit (1874)—S. H. WHITE, Illinois, President.
- Minneapolis (1875)—W. T. HARRIS, Mo., President.
- Baltimore (1876)—W. F. PHELPS, Minn., President.
- Louisville (1877) M. A. NEWELL, Md., President.

It will be seen from this list that the provision of the constitution as first adopted, restricting the Association to biennial meetings, must have been changed at the Cincinnati session.

From 1870 inclusive, up to the present time the proceedings of the Association and its several departments, and the addresses delivered therein, have been published in yearly bound volumes; and it will be safe to say these volumes contain a mass of professional literature excelled in value by no similar collection published anywhere.

Now that the Association has passed into its manly majority, we are sure that the whole country, and especially Pennsylvania, on whose soil it was born, will earnestly wish that it may constantly grow in strength and good works, and arrive at a flourishing old age. The American Institute is well, and State Associations are well, but our Association has both a national breadth and a national importance, and must be preserved.

Since its establishment there have been discussed in this body all the leading questions relating to the education of youth, such as the organization of schools, courses of study, methods of instruction, and the

influence the higher institutions of learning have upon the lower, and upon the development of civilization. In the discussion of these questions it has brought together the foremost men of all sections of the country, whose searching investigations and clear and forcible presentation of their several views have contributed largely to getting the best things known and done. Within the period of its existence perhaps not many great and original measures have had their origin, but those already rooted have been nourished and strengthened. Normal Schools have largely increased in numbers and efficiency; graded schools have multiplied many fold, and through them the schools of our cities and towns have become the best in the world,—ample proof of which statement will be presented in an address to be delivered at the present meeting. With the growth of the graded-school system, has extended the plan of having schools supervised by professional educators, with which no merely non-professional supervision can for one moment compare, and by this professional supervision have vitality and skill been introduced into every department of our public-school systems to an extent before unknown. In all these progressive movements, it is fair to claim this Association has exercised a full share of influence, reinforcing everywhere the efforts of more provincial organizations. There has, however, been one great educational agency established since the foundation of this Association, and of which the Association may be said to have been the special champion. I refer to the Bureau of Education. The defence of this institution when it has been attacked, and the support of its measures with an unflagging zeal, I regard to have been among the most useful and honorable of the labors of the Association.

Of the Centennial Exhibition, so grand in all its features, and so admirable in its management—a wondrous university to which people from every quarter of the earth came to learn lessons not taught in ordinary institutions of learning—the one feature most attractive to intelligent foreigners, was our Educational Exhibit. This showed them, as no other department of the exhibition could, the source of the activity of our people as inventors, and the substantial foundation on which their prosperity rests. This exhibition of the actual work done by our schools in their different grades, from the lowest primary to the senior class of the High School, was made in accordance with rules prepared by this Association, and a large part of its success was due to the active exertions of its membership in the several States.

Having thus briefly glanced at the early history of the Association, and more briefly to the work in which it has borne a part, the question which bears itself home upon us in this the completion of its twenty-first year, is, What enterprises shall it now set before itself for future accomplishment? Many of those who were active in its foundation have laid down their burden of labor to take it up no more forever; and those who remain of that early band have grown gray in service. We must then look to the younger members, with their greater vigor and higher courage, to push forward to greater achievements.

A few years ago the public mind was more nearly a unit on some questions of gravest import to our people than it seems to be now. One

of these is the question whether the high school ought to constitute a part of a system of free schools. This department of the system has within a few years been violently assailed by an influential portion of the public press, by politicians who would fain bear the name of statesmen, and by others in high places; but as yet the people have not been among these assailants, and if I mistake not both their intelligence and their temper, they never will be. Our national progress depends as much upon the diffusion of the higher learning as it does upon the universality of the elementary; and if this Association has but the courage of its convictions, it will oppose itself in the most aggressive way to every measure which shall tend to restrict this higher learning to a favored class. That democracy is a vain pretense which does not do what it lawfully may, and its means will allow, to give all its youth a fair start in life.

Another question which has lately assumed a prominent place in our discussions, is destined, I am sure, to occupy a place still more prominent; and that is the question how, if at all, we are to unite in our public-school systems the training of brain and hand. Technical schools, whether to supplement the training of academic institutions, or whether as a substitute for it, have secured a fixed place in our schemes of public education. But this other question has a much wider sweep. Instead of reaching but a few, it proposes to extend whatever advantages which may accrue from the training of the hand to the mass of youth in all schools above the most elementary. The theory of its advocates is that an entirely worthy education is one which teaches *to do* as well as *to think*. Say these advocates, "The scheme of manual training, aside from its practical value, will prove an important element in mental training, and those who take it will be possessed of as much mind-power at the end of their course as they would be if they gave their whole time to the usual course in book learning." That the union of the two kinds of training is highly desirable is coming to be acknowledged with considerable unanimity; but there lie many difficulties in the practical realization of the scheme in our schools. To determine the limitations of the theory—for some of its advocates are already becoming extravagant in their claims—and to overcome the practical difficulties referred to, is another important work for the Association.

The emancipation of more than four millions of slaves, brought about by the late civil war, has imposed upon the nation and upon every great educational organization a burden and responsibility not to be easily borne. Their education and that of the poor whites—who in this regard are often but little better off—involves in it the perpetuity of the government. In this vital matter this Association has been no idle looker-on. It has taken the ground that this is a national question, in which every section has an interest, and that the general government is morally bound, so far as the limitation of its powers will permit, to render aid. The Association has many times declared that the proceeds of the sales of public lands should be exclusively devoted to educational purposes. And as a body it has memorialized Congress to distribute such proceeds among the several States on the basis of illiteracy, with the intent that, as the South is poor and her needs great, she should, for many years to

come, receive the greater amount of aid. And no objectionable partiality will be shown by this course, for what strengthens her will strengthen all. I speak confidently when I state that the efforts of the Association in this direction have been gratefully appreciated by our friends of the South; and I speak with equal confidence in assuring those friends that the Association will never relax its exertions until such a measure has become a law. Nor will the Association stop there. It will join heart and hand with the people of the South in support of any other practical measure for the establishing among them a great and strong free-school system. By such mutual co-operation, and through the kind feelings it will engender, we may expect to cement the different sections of our country into a union strong, harmonious, and enduring.

It was one of the original purposes of this Association, as is witnessed by the call for its creation, to elevate teaching into a noble profession. This cannot be done except by the aid of professional schools. We may therefore expect that it will continue to be, as it has heretofore been, the bold and uncompromising defender of Normal Schools, and that it will persistently labor to increase their numbers and to make them a greater educational force than they have ever been, by giving breadth and exaltation to their purposes.

It is a question worthy serious consideration whether the Association should not devote more of its effort toward influencing legislation. Our discussions on practical themes too often come to nothing, because their conclusions are not embodied in laws, which might often be effected if united exertions were made to that end. With most legislative bodies the views of such an Association as this on educational matters, if properly presented, would, in the very nature of things, have great weight.

My immediate predecessor in the office I am now called upon to fill, in his inaugural address spoke with a charming eloquence of the value of books and the creation of a general taste for good reading. The establishment of free libraries is scarcely less important than the establishment of free schools. Few of our cities and towns are unprovided with these valuable adjuncts to a school education, but the mass of our population is in the country districts; and how to get into the hands of the children of these districts, aye, of the men and women too, good books, books which shall refine and ennoble, is a question of the highest moment. To cultivate a taste for good reading is the most efficacious, possibly the only way of uplifting the great people.

In this connection, and believing it to be one of the attributes of this Association, both in its organized and individual capacity, to encourage all worthy educational movements wherever they may arise, I take pleasure in referring to the scheme of Rev. J. H. Vincent, of the Chautauqua Reading and Scientific Circles, for carrying into homes in sequestered country places as well as into the homes of the city and town, the best kind of reading on the best of topics. The scheme includes more than this. He sets the inmates of these homes—old and young—at work upon regular courses of study, bringing, in a sense, a university to every man's door. He does not claim that these courses can be profitably substituted for the more thorough and systematic ones of the schools; but I

think he may justly claim that they will be of inestimable value to those whose school privileges have been few, and even to scholars who possess a desire to add to the store of their school learning. To many minds which would otherwise have groped in darkness they bring an enduring light. The whole country is now dotted with Dr. Vincent's reading and studying "circles," with a membership of nearly ten thousand and the plan is capable of indefinite extension. Thus in accordance with an idea which seems almost an inspiration, goes on in uncounted homes the study of history, of general literature, of astronomy, of the science of every-day life—lifting the inmates of these homes out of their life of daily toil into a region of pure intellectual delights. No one can have observed in his own community the results of this scheme without feeling that the work is worthy the highest commendation.

The question as to whether Kindergarten schools shall constitute an integral part of our common-school systems is one claiming more and more of the public thought. If such a measure should be adopted, it would exercise a most powerful influence on the whole scheme of public instruction—an influence more powerful than has resulted from any educational measure adopted within the last half century. Its results would be even more far-reaching, and, as I believe, more beneficial, than those wrought by the introduction of the natural methods of instruction, grand as they have been. The subject has already been discussed with some fulness in the Association, and is to come before one of the departments at the present session. When it has been discussed in all its bearings, the conclusion reached by the Association should be expressed in that way that shall give it greatest weight.

In what I have said in the foregoing pages, I have attempted to give voice to what I conceived to be the general mind of the Association as to what its future work should be. I now beg to express, in a word, views entertained probably by only a minority of the Association, and certainly by only a minority of the people. Important as I deem the different lines of work I have pointed out, I do not think them grand enough to call out all the powers of the National Educational Association. I believe it ought to test its strength on measures greater than the greatest of these. One of these measures—the supreme one as I view it—is compulsory education. I weary of half-way measures. If education is what we profess to believe it—the one earthly good to be chosen before all others—why should we hesitate to throw ourselves into the advocacy of a measure that will make it universal. To carry learning into all homes and to make it the possession of every creature, so that there shall no more be a neglected class in this country of ours—that, as it seems to me, is a work altogether worthy the full powers of this great organization.

On motion of the Secretary, W: D. HENKLE, T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, of West Virginia, and W: T. Seal of Pennsylvania, were appointed respectively first and second assistant Secretaries.

On motion of the Treasurer, J. ORMOND WILSON, JOSEPH M. WILSON and CLARENCE B. RHEEM, of the District of Columbia, were elected respectively first and second Assistant Treasurers.

The Rev. GEO. P. HAYS, of Pa., offered the following resolution, which was adopted :

Resolved, That the thanks of this body are due and are hereby tendered to those inviting members of this Association to the special privileges stated by Mr. SHIPPEN.

Announcements were made as to the place of meeting of the different Departments and on motion of the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, the time of the meetings of the Departments was fixed at 3 P. M., for July 29 and 30.

E. A. SINGER of the Local Committee of Invitation, announced that free tickets were ready for delivery to members for the Concert and Evening Address in the Academy of Music. He also announced an excursion to Cape May on Friday.

Prof. W. F. PHELPS, of Minnesota, read the paper of the Hon. J. W. DICKINSON, of Massachusetts, entitled

THE HIGH-SCHOOL QUESTION.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen :

I have been invited to read to you a brief paper on High Schools and Secondary Instruction. What I shall say will seem to have almost exclusive reference to the history and character of High Schools in Massachusetts, and of the rights and duties of Massachusetts to give them public support. If one of the free States of the Republic differed essentially from another in so far as rights and duties with reference to its educational institutions are concerned, my arguments would be out of place here. If the natural rights of individual men were not the same wherever individual men exist, then, my reasons could have only a limited and special significance; but as the destiny of all States and of individuals controlled by self-imposed rules, is determined by the same causes, the particular statements I shall make, and which seem to refer to one State only, may be considered to have a general application. With this caution to my hearers. I will ask them to think of general truths while I describe what in some respects seems to refer to an individual.

In 1642 the colony of Massachusetts Bay, through its representatives in the general court, passed an act enjoining upon the municipal authorities the duty of providing for the education of every child within their respective jurisdictions.

In 1647 every township containing one hundred families or householders was required to maintain a grammar school, whose master should be able to fit the boys for the University. The character of these schools may be inferred from the conditions established in 1642, by President DUNSTER, for admission of boys to Harvard College. The conditions were as follows:—"When any scholar is able to read Tully, or such like classical Latin authors extempore, and make and speak true Latin in verse and prose 'Suo (ut aiunt) marte,' and decline perfectly the paradigms of nouns

and verbs in the Greek tongue, then may he be admitted into the college, nor shall any claim admission before he possesses such qualifications;” and President DUNSTER made a rule that throughout their course the scholars were not to use the vernacular within the college limits, except when called to deliver an oration or some other public exercise in English. From what has been said it may be known, that the Grammar schools of 1647 are not to be confounded with the schools of modern times called by the same name. The ancient Grammar schools received their name not from the fact that they gave instruction in English Grammar merely, but because they resembled the old Cathedral Grammar schools of England, or the Cloister schools of the monasteries, in which schools the teaching of the Latin and Greek was the especial aim.

In the old statute of 1647, we find expressed the original notion of gradation in our town schools. The Grammar schools of that day were at the head of the system, and so were the type of the high school of the present.

In 1683 all towns of five hundred families were required to maintain two grammar schools and two writing schools, and any town failing to support a grammar school was required to pay a fine, first of 10£, afterwards one of 20£ to the nearest school kept in compliance with the law. Mr. GEO. B. EMERSON says, “that this law of 1647, establishing free schools on a broad and comprehensive basis, not only had no precedent in the school legislation of any country, but the ideas expressed by the law seem never before to have entered the minds of men.

Two divine ideas, says Horace Mann, seem to have filled the great hearts of our Massachusetts Fathers, their duty to God, and their duty to their children. The term High School does not occur in any of the Statutes, from the earliest to the present time, but by common consent, it is now applied to those schools kept for the benefit of the whole town. In 1826, fifty-three years ago, an act was passed establishing our present system of High Schools. By this act provision was made for the free education of every child in the Commonwealth in the common branches of learning, and it was also provided that besides the Elementary Schools a town containing five hundred families shall maintain a school kept for the benefit of the whole town, in which school a course of secondary instruction shall be given. I have now spoken of the origin and character of our high schools, and have shown that from the earliest times it has been the policy of the Commonwealth to require these schools to be maintained at the public expense. In modern times it is affirmed by some that the right and duty of the State to provide schools for its children are limited to providing those which give instruction in the elementary branches of learning only. To test the propriety of this affirmation it is necessary to determine first what is meant by the State, and secondly what are the rights and duties of a free State.

A free civil State, like Massachusetts, is a community of persons living within well-defined limits of territory, acting under a permanent organization and controlled by self-imposed rules, for the purpose of securing to themselves protection in the enjoyment of the objects of their natural rights, and for their development as intellectual and moral beings. The

existence of the state is necessary for two ends, protection and human development. The State is necessary for protection in the enjoyment of the objects of natural rights, as man is governed more or less by the selfish principle of action. It is necessary for human development; for 1st, there can be no proper development of human nature, except in well-organized communities whose institutions are adapted to train the youth in societies rather than in a state of isolation; and, 2nd, the means of development cannot be supplied except by the combined effort of communities of persons.

The amount of protection a State affords, will depend upon the amount of development of the people her educational institutions produce.

The rights of property, and liberty, and life, will be violated unless first, they are known to be rights, and, secondly unless the disastrous consequences of disturbing them are also known and conscientiously regarded. Protection results from human development and that development is Education. I use the term Education or development to mean that state of the mind in which it is able and inclined to exert all the energy of which it is capable in obtaining a knowledge of what ought to be known; in producing such emotions as the knowledge is adapted to excite, and in choosing the best ends. The education of all the people of a State is necessary that the State may have the power and the disposition to secure the two ends for which States exist.

What then are the rights and duties of the State in relation to Education? In discussing this question we are sometimes led to consider the people and the State to be two distinct objects of thought, and we inquire for the obligations of the one and for the rights and the duties of the other. If the definition we have given of the State is the correct one, the people and the State are one and the same thing. This being true, what may the people acting as a State do for themselves as individuals? The people constituting a democratic State and acting as a State, may properly exercise their power in doing anything whatever that is necessary to be done for their own protection and development, and which acting as individuals they cannot so well do, each for himself alone. The State as an end in itself is of no consequence, and it is not to be supported as an end; and individual members composing the State have no interest in it only so far as it enables them to secure for themselves the two ends for which States exist. It has been shown that individuals acting independently can not provide themselves with that instruction and training which will produce the State called Education.

The mind is instructed and trained by all the influences that in any way affect it, but most of the systematic work done to educate, is done in the schools. The State, then, should establish and maintain public schools, and into them should be gathered all the children of the State. From what has been said it would seem that these children should be kept in the schools until they have acquired a knowledge of their own wants as physical and moral beings; of the means of gratifying these wants; of the relations they bear to one another as members of society, and of the relations they bear to the State whose institutions they are to perpetuate. They should also acquire that mental and moral training without which

a knowledge of the truth cannot be obtained, and which if obtained would be of no value to its possessor. There is not now in the mind of any man whose judgment has anything to do in forming public opinion a doubt concerning the propriety and necessity of providing for elementary instruction in public schools, supported by equal taxation or from the income of a permanent fund, established by the State, or supported from both these sources. There are some, however, who affirm that secondary instruction cannot with equal justice to all be provided for in Secondary Schools established by the State and supported by a general tax.

After what has been said of the rights and duties of the State, it only remains to be shown that secondary instruction is necessary to the well-being of the individual, and to the existence and highest civilization of a free State, and then elementary and scientific or secondary schools are to be supported by the same means and for the same reasons. This will lead us to compare the two grades of schools, 1st, with reference to the kind of knowledge each has for its object. 2d, with reference to the relation the two kinds of knowledge hold to each other. 3d, with reference to the training the mind receives in obtaining knowledge, and 4th, with reference to the preparation the knowledge and training furnish for the duties of practical life and for citizenship. And first it is the peculiar province of the elementary schools to teach facts, without much reference to the causes of them, or to any general principles philosophy may derive from them. In the secondary schools the learner is required to refer the facts he has discovered to their causes, and to reason for general principles. The relation elementary holds to secondary knowledge is, the one prepares the mind with knowledge and training for the other. A knowledge of plants prepares the mind for a knowledge of Botany; a knowledge of number leads to a knowledge of arithmetic; a knowledge of language is necessary to a knowledge of Grammar, and a knowledge of the facts of any science will prepare the mind for the science itself.

A study for facts trains the mind to observe, and gives it an inclination to use its observing power. A study for scientific knowledge trains the reflective powers to reason for general principles.

A complete system of schools includes both the elementary and the scientific schools. As facts learned in the primary schools, are good for nothing except for the activity they occasion the mind to exert and for the general principles they lead the mind to obtain, the secondary schools give character and aim and value to the elementary schools, which have little meaning except as they are related to the schools above them; for if the secondary schools are taken from our system or are degraded in any way, then our children will be in danger of being turned into active life without a knowledge of those general principles which alone can guide them to the successful prosecution of any business, and without that culture which alone can enable them to perform well any public or private duty. Both private and public interest demand that the schools add to that teaching which results in mere information, that which produces an ability to reason correctly for general principles and an inclination to do what ought to be done. JOHN ADAMS said that the instruction of the

people in every kind of knowledge that can be of use to them in the practice of their moral duties as men, citizens, and christians, and of their political and civil duties as members of society and freemen, ought to be the care of the public, and of all who have any share in the conduct of its affairs. High schools in our public-school system hold the relation of a part to a whole. Without them there could be no true scientific teaching in our system of public schools. The pupils of the elementary schools would be sent out into public life without a proper training of their reflective faculties by whose activity general principles are discovered, and rules of conduct are constructed. The elementary schools cannot teach methods of thinking nor those doctrines which direct one in all the affairs of life.

If we remove the High Schools from the system, there will be no longer open to all the means of obtaining that knowledge which directs to a successful individual life and which trains individuals to be intelligent and good citizens in a highly-civilized and free Commonwealth.

Again, the secondary schools in the towns always stimulate the schools below them.

The courses of studies taught in the High Schools and the methods of teaching practiced in them determine the studies and the methods in the lower schools. In this way, the influence of one grade of instruction over another is from above downward in so far as relates to what shall be taught and to the manner of teaching, while it is from below upward in all that which relates to thoroughness of the work done. FRANCIS ADAMS of England says that "if the elementary schools of Germany are the best in the world, it is owing in a great measure to the fact that the higher schools are open to all classes. In England not only have the aims of the elementary schools been educationally low and narrow, but an impassable gulf has separated the people's schools from the higher schools of the country." In the commonwealth of Massachusetts over 90 per cent of the population are within the reach of High Schools and the path lies open to them for the children of the poor as well as of the rich. Without them poor boys and girls would be deprived of the means of obtaining that liberal culture which sets the mind free from prejudice and enables one to hold equal rank with the best of his fellows.

Free instruction in the higher branches of learning is necessary to prevent all those class distinctions that are sure to spring up if such instruction can be obtained only by a favored few. A republican State and republican society are both impossible unless the children of the State are educated alike and together in the same schools, to that extent at least, necessary to enable and incline their minds to think alike and judge alike on all questions pertaining to the principles on which rest republican institutions. That the schools may be common schools they must be established and supported by the State, and all the conditions of their existence must be secured by the guardian care and by the authority of the State. It is the great mission of a republican State to support its public schools, for in this way it can best accomplish the two purposes for which States were established. There will be some ignorant men in all countries and in all times, but in a free State the number of these men must be reduced

to the smallest possible number, and their ignorance must not be due to the character or condition of the institutions under which they live. To make education universal, the schools must be free and the attendance upon them compulsory.

"A popular government," says MADISON, "without popular information or the means of acquiring it, is but a prologue to a farce or tragedy, or perhaps to both." Knowledge will forever govern ignorance, and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives. In the Constitution of Massachusetts adopted nearly one hundred years ago may be found this declaration of principles. "Wisdom and knowledge as well as virtue diffused generally among the body of the people being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties, and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of legislatures and magistrates in all future periods of this commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them, especially the University at Cambridge, public schools and grammar schools in the towns; to encourage private societies and public institutions, rewards and immunities, for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufactures, and a natural history of the country; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in their dealings; sincerity, good humor, and all social affections, and generous sentiments among the people." It seems to me that the Fathers had a more exalted notion of what the schools should be, and accomplish than have some of their children who live in more modern times.

It is refreshing to open the pages of our early New-England history and learn in what estimation the founders of our free communities held the free public school; to learn what they thought of the rights and duties of the State with reference to popular education, to find what were their opinions concerning the extent of that learning which the free schools should offer to all the children of the State, and to learn also what sacrifices of labor and wealth they were willing to make that all might obtain the most liberal culture the schools could give.

"In the year 1853, the Hon. SAMUEL A. ELIOT, the distinguished father of the present president of Harvard College, made an address before the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, on a complete system of education. It was considered to be an unanswerable argument in favor of higher education by the State. He says there should be not only some education for all, but every needed kind of education from which all may make their choice." "It was a great thing two centuries ago that New England should have done so much more in the days of her poverty and anxiety and weakness than the rest of the world to promote the general education of the people by public authority." "In Massachusetts provision was made more than two hundred years ago for a more extended course of instruction to be sustained by all the resources of the colony; and if we had retained the noble ambition of our Fathers such a purpose would never have slipped out of view or become unpopular." "Our

ancestors were right in thinking that the common schools were altogether inadequate as a means of public instruction." "The elementary school is the cradle, and the intellectual food furnished is fit for the infant occupant, but to claim that the State has done its whole duty in providing those only for its children, is establishing a very limited sphere indeed.

If it be the duty of the State, or if it be wise for it to provide education for the community, it is its duty, and it is wise for it to furnish as much as is needed for the preparation of that community for all the duties and occupations of life."

EDWARD EVERETT, in his famous plea for State aid for Harvard College says, "I will thank any person to show why it is expedient and beneficial in a community to make public provision for teaching the elements of learning and not expedient nor beneficial to make similar provision to aid the learner's progress toward the mastery of the most difficult branches of science and the choicest refinements of literature."

"No system of public education," says HUXLEY, "is worthy the name of State, unless it creates a great educational ladder with one end in the gutter and the other in the university." And these are opinions of the profoundest thinkers of modern times.

Our High Schools are the objects of severe criticisms. But only let it be granted that the State is bound by its civil and moral obligations to establish and maintain these Schools;—that they form a necessary part of a whole in every common-school system;—that they stimulate the elementary schools into more enthusiasm and efficiency, and furnish a medium of communication between the elementary schools below and the superior above, and that they establish the means by which that equality of social rank may be maintained which renders Republican institutions possible, and then we are prepared with great amiability of spirit to admit that our High Schools are not perfect.

They are charged with attempting too much and accomplishing too little. That is, too many branches of learning are introduced into their courses of studies, and they are too superficially pursued. The criticism is only partially just, for while the variety of subjects introduced is not too great, still the learner may be required to master too many independent facts in connection with each one of them. The young pupil should be taught facts enough in connection with every subject pursued to furnish the occasion to his mind for a knowledge of those general principles upon which the science of the subject depends. This will enable him when he comes into the scientific schools to master the science itself. In addition to this, every student of facts or of science should be taught a method of study, and he should be trained to use the method. After this has been done, the subject may be dropped, in so far as school work is concerned, and the pupil left to pursue it to any extent he pleases alone.

Pupils should be made acquainted with methods of study and of acting, and should be trained to use the methods, then they may leave the guides of their youth and go on their way alone.

Such training will prepare one for citizenship in a self-governed State.

It is agreed that we must teach the rudiments of learning to all the children of the State, that they may have the elements of that prepara-

tion which will fit them to perform well their duties as citizens and christian men ; but it should never be forgotten that if the schools do no more than teach facts, they will never produce intelligent conscientious supporters of either the State or of the faith.

We must add to our elementary instruction that which has for its end a knowledge of general principles, and a right training of the faculties.

The institutions best adapted in our system of public instruction to teach this knowledge and give this training, are the Secondary Schools.

It is said also that we must omit from these schools the study of the classic languages, and all ornamental branches of learning.

But GLADSTONE and JOHN STUART MILL say that the study of the Latin and Greek should hold a prominent place in all secondary courses of instruction as they furnish a most important object of knowledge, and a most important means of mental culture. Language, in the better sense of the term, is that faculty of the mind by whose activity ideas and thoughts are associated with their established signs.

In a secondary sense it may be considered to be any system of signs by which ideas and thoughts are expressed. Keeping in mind the two senses in which the term language may be employed, we can see how it is that the use of language considered to be the signs of knowledge, will cultivate language considered to be a faculty of the mind.

The proper study of language considered to be a means of expression, leads the student first to study and know the thing to be named and described ; then, it requires him to obtain a practical knowledge of the language by which expressions are made ; then he is led to study the thoughts expressed by the language employed ; then, finally, he is led back to the mind which produced the thoughts.

After we have obtained our language by an experience in its use, we may study for a knowledge of those forms of words and for that arrangement of them, from which arises their grammar of language ; or we may study the style of the language from which arises its Rhetoric. But we cannot study either the grammar or Rhetoric of a language intelligently, without referring what is discovered to the minds of those who constructed the language and gave it its style. BURTON says that the study of an author's style is the study of the man himself. From this it will follow that a philosophical study of language belongs to the most important work of the schools. It also follows that the study of ancient forms and styles of expression is a study of the history of ancient men and of ancient times by which alone they can be revealed to us.

No modern student ever entered into the spirit of the past except through the medium of ancient forms of expression. Remove the Greek and Roman languages from our courses of study and we have removed from the consideration of our students the only reliable records of Grecian and Roman civilization, and at the same time we have removed from them the possibility of obtaining that knowledge and of receiving that training which alone will enable them to have a full use of that portion of their own language derived from the Greek and from the Latin tongue.

If we omit the so-called ornamental branches from our instruction, then the refinements of our culture will be lost, and taste, that sensibility upon

whose proper training, skill in the arts as well as that love for the beautiful which creates a demand for the products of art, will remain an undeveloped power.

Drawing should be introduced from the first into the schools, for it has for its object that training of the hand and eye which lays a foundation for skill in the arts; it leads the mind to make a more careful examination of objects of study; it furnishes the best method of describing those objects that have form and size, it has a refining influence, by cultivating the taste; and it improves the morals, by exciting a love for the beautiful.

The training which skill in drawing implies, is that which every student will be glad to possess when he comes to take up the work of practical life.

Singing is an important branch of instruction. Training in this art is good for the reader to receive. It furnishes one with the ability to express emotions which can be fully expressed only in song, it provides a source of refined and elevated enjoyment, and when rightly conducted it has a tendency to purify the heart.

Finally, it is said we are educating some of our children too much; that for the masses very much education is an unfortunate possession, as it makes its possessor unhappy and discontented and renders him either too proud or too lazy to work. A true and thorough culture of the mind will have a tendency to make a man proud of himself and unwilling to spend his time and strength in doing that which the forces of nature or which the lower animals can be made to do as well as he; but a true culture never made a man vain, or unhappy, or shiftless. Ignorance is the parent of sloth and poverty and vice everywhere, while knowledge constantly stimulates the mind to acquire more knowledge; and an ability to think increases the desire for all that activity which furnishes an opportunity or an occasion for thinking.

The false customs of society may render some forms of labor unpopular, but this must not be charged to the schools, nor is it to be changed by depriving the laborer of the advantages of developing his own mental and spiritual nature.

Rank in human society has nothing to do with the right or the importance of human culture. Wherever there is a human being there should be furnished an opportunity for the highest culture and in this country, at least, we should not for a moment admit that the advantages of birth have anything to do in determining what are our natural rights.

The laboring classes of the country should be especially interested in supporting the secondary schools, for unless higher instruction is free alike to all, their own children may be deprived of it, and with its loss will be taken away the possibility of their holding equal rank with the more fortunate, even in our American society. In this country education is the great leveller.

Give a boy a good education, and, though wanting in wealth or in ancestral renown, he will take his place among his fellows, the peer of the richest and the noblest.

Our secondary schools, or high schools, are among the noblest of our institutions.

I rejoice when I visit them to find in their halls the rich and the poor

sitting side by side on the same seats receiving their mental training the same in kind and from the same free source, for I know that a few years of such training under such circumstances, will beget in them that state of the mind and of the heart, which will lead them in their future lives to think alike, and to have for each other a mutual sympathy and respect.

Every influence that has a tendency to withdraw support from our high schools or weaken public confidence in their character or to confuse the public mind in regard to the justice of maintaining them at public expense is hostile to the best interests of all classes, but it is especially *dangerous* to the vital interests of that large class that must depend on free public schools for their education.

The opulent should be interested in these schools, for by their influence on the education of the masses, the civilization of the State is exalted, life and property are more secure, and all the good ends for which human society was instituted will be more fully secured.

Neither private interest, nor political ambition, nor sectarian zeal, should move us to waver for an instant in the full and cordial support of those educational institutions established by the fathers, and which, in time of peace and of war, in times of plenty and of want, have been thus far so nobly maintained by their children.

It is the duty of the State to see to it that all the children of the State are thoroughly educated, no matter what opinions those who are opposed to our free schools may hold, for it is by the universal, free, and complete education of the people that all the problems of individual and social life are to be solved.

This paper elicited a spirited discussion in which the Hon. JOHN EATON, of the District of Columbia, Dr. E. E. WHITE, of Indiana, Dr. J. A. PAXSON, President of the Permanent Exhibition, the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, and EDWARD SHIPPEN took part.

It is regretted that the persons taking part in this discussion have not furnished abstracts of their remarks. Dr. WHITE contended for the right of the State to furnish higher education and that if the right of State education is admitted at all it is impossible to draw any invariable line beyond which the State cannot rightfully exercise its powers. Dr. PAXSON spoke earnestly on the failure of the schools to provide an education suitable for those entering the ordinary vocations of life and alluded to the great number of High-School graduates in the Philadelphia prisons. This allusion called forth earnest protests from the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM and EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq.

On motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON, it was resolved, That a committee of three of which J. A. PAXSON and J. P. WICKERSHAM shall be two, be appointed to report at this meeting of the Association, the number of High-School graduates in the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania and the Philadelphia City Prison.

The question was further discussed by J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa, J. R. Sypher, of Pennsylvania, and the Hon JOHN EATON, of the District of Columbia. Dr. GEO. P. HAYS, of Pennsylvania, suggested that the committee should also inquire how many persons who ought to be in the penitentiary are not in it in consequence of possessing sufficient knowledge to enable them to evade the laws.

It was resolved on motion of EDWARD SHIPPEN, That J. L. PICKARD, of Iowa, J. P. WICKERSHAM, and J. A. PAXSON be appointed to examine the inmates of Moyamensing Prison and the Penitentiary of the Eastern District of Pennsylvania and to enquire and report the number who have entered into or graduated from Colleges, High Schools, Grammar Schools, or other Primary Schools.

This resolution was discussed by Dr. J. A. PAXSON, Prof. S. S. HALDERMAN, of Pennsylvania, the Hon. J. D. PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts, and Miss SARAH A. HUNTER, M. D., of Pennsylvania.

The President announced a part of the Committee on the Nomination of Officers. Also the following on Resolutions:—J. ORMOND WILSON, of the District of Columbia, LEMUEL MOSS, of Indiana, ELI T. TAPPAN, of Ohio, EDWARD DANFORTH, of New York, and WM. E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts.

The General Association adjourned to meet at the Academy of Music at 8 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8:20. The first part of the evening was devoted to a Concert by Philadelphia Amateurs.

The Rev. ROBERT E. THOMPSON delivered the following address on

THE NEIGHBORHOOD AS A STARTING-POINT IN EDUCATION.

My subject is one which has been suggested by my own experience; first as a student, and then as a teacher. It is "The Neighborhood as a Starting-Point in Education." I know it may be claimed, with some show of truth, that neighborhood and education have little to do with each other, and that the teacher's work is chiefly antagonistic to the narrowing influence of locality. It will be said that he has to lift his scholars to a larger and wider horizon in life, above the contractedness and the prejudices of town or village—or, as some would say, even of the nation itself—into the intellectual breadth and atmosphere of humanity. And it might be alleged that the very meaning, the chief purpose, of the National Association is to emphasize the fact that education should be freed from all local trammels and invested with the dignity of a national concern.

With the feeling represented by such an objection, I am very heartily in sympathy; and yet I think the objection a mistaken one. We will all

agree, I suppose, that the local influences of their own neighborhood exercise a great power over the rising generation, and take up a very large part of their time and their intellectual energy. At times, indeed, these become so engrossing as to interfere decidedly with their studies; and throughout the round year they are a power of distraction and dissipation, more or less sensibly felt. We would fain have it otherwise; and at times we have set ourselves to make it otherwise, and to insulate the school from the life that ebbs and flows around it, but rarely—I am bold to say—with marked success. The world of study, of thought, of books, into which you are trying to lead the boy's mind, is a very wonderful world. An acquaintance with it will be very profitable to him. But the world of actual life and experience, however narrow in itself, and narrowing in its influence, is an older and a more fascinating world; and you cannot wean his mind from it. He is more widely awake to the thing his eyes can see, though it be but a squirrel-hunt or a fight on the streets, than to the things which other people have seen for him, and have written down for his reading. Nor is he altogether wrong. The divine order of life in which he is placed, is an order of neighborhood and of local interests, first of all. It has bound us up in close and special relations with a few things. It has decreed that our life shall centre its affections around one spot of earth, and call it home. It has also decreed that in all the earlier years of our intellectual growth, before our abstract powers of thought and sustained contemplation have been developed, the things at hand to touch, sight, and feeling, shall possess a reality and a vividness, with which neither the written word nor the pictured page can compare. And the question for us, as teachers, is somewhat this:—Can we bring these two worlds—the world of books and study, and the world of life and experience—into any real and wholesome contact? Can we so manage that this exuberant and often troublesome interest in all things local and visible, shall make our scholars more earnest in their work, more devoted to their studies?

Every class has its own temptations, and one of those which beset the teaching class is to think of the child's education as little more than the result of school-work and book-work, and to ascribe to these a sort of omnipotence in the development of mind and the formation of character. But there is an unrecognized and equally-important part of his education, which goes on out of school, and deals with other books than the printed page, but is not less potent in moulding his future. Those of you who have read JEAN PAUL RICHTER's paradoxical but suggestive book, *Levana, or the Doctrine of Education*, will remember the amusing discourse in which he shows the *powerlessness* of education, since the teacher can put in but one word out of the thousands which reach and fill the child's ear, and since mere *words* are so feeble of influence in comparison with the living force of *action*. And all of us who have been able to watch the growth of our own minds since childhood, and have formed any estimate of the forces which inclined us this way or that in life; must have felt how great are these unrecognized forces in giving shape to life and destiny. It was the swinging of a church lamp that made GALILEO a physicist. JOHN RUSKIN ascribes his own passionate love of natural

beauty to the daily influence of a certain line of horizon, upon which his eye rested in childhood. Human beings, children especially, are not cased in rhinoceros hide. They absorb subtle influences at every pore. The shape and outline of the trees we saw first and oftenest, have become a part of ourselves, inseparable from our nature. I can still recall the new aspect given to life by the removal of a branch of a tree which grew in front of my childhood's home. It made all things seem more spacious, lightful, and harder in outline. It was like a transition from the romantic to the classic in art.

Here, then, is a great and peculiar activity of mind already going forward in the child, and calling for wise direction and wholesome care to keep it from becoming morbid or barren of good result. I venture to say that it is the teacher's duty to bring reflective intelligence to bear upon the child's intellectual life, and to throw new and clearer light upon those every-day objects around which his thoughts are gathering. He should teach him to ask "Why?" where he only asks "What?" and to gather up the confusing variety of experience into the unity of truth and principle. The school aims at making conscious thought clearer and more exact by various disciplines. Is there any reason why these disciplines should concern themselves with the remote in space and time, rather than with the near and the familiar? Should they not blend themselves with the boy's out-door thinking, rather than keep themselves aloof from it?

Do not understand me as bringing any wholesale charges against the existing schools, in this regard. I can only speak from my own experience of schools—public and private, civic and rural—on both sides of the Atlantic, and from the indications given by text-books in use elsewhere. There may be multitudes of schools—whole regions of them—which are all that could be desired in this regard, and through whose open windows no bright and thoughtful boy ever looks with an oppressive sense of the great gulf between the world God has made for him out of doors, and the world man has made for him in-doors—schools in which the cherished surroundings of the child's life are associated with his duties as a student. God grant that there may be many such. But, speaking from my own limited experience, I am moved to plead the case of the boy not so highly favored. What is he taught at school, to make him keep his eyes more open on his way to and from the school-house? or to disclose to him the open secrets of nature which lie on every side around him? or to turn his attention from the vulgar, frivolous, gossipy side of the social life of his neighborhood? His boyish interest in bird and beast is an interest altogether uncared for, or regarded as a nuisance when it leads him to turn the garret or the barn into a museum of dead or living objects,—“lumbering the house with trash,” as mother or housewife briefly describes it, until some day the trash is swept beyond his reach. His yearning to copy natural forms on paper runs its course without sympathy or direction. FRA LIPPO LIPPI describes this boyish fever:

I drew men's faces on my copy books,
Scrawled them within the Antiphonary's marge,
Joined legs and arms to the tall music notes,

Found nose and eyes and chin for A's and B's,
And made a string of pictures of the world
Betwixt the ins and outs of verbs and nouns,
On the wall, the bench, the door. The monks looked black.

But no "worthy prior" bids young America "daub away." His activity is simply the torment of his teacher, until it dies of neglect and scorn.

But the inner necessities of the school's course of instruction, as well as the necessities of the boy's nature, call for a change in the direction I have indicated. The demand first uttered by the great poet and school-master, JOHN MILTON, that boys be taught *things* rather than *words*, is one to which this age is very heartily responsive. For good or for evil, the educational drift of our times sets in that direction, and there is every reason to expect that those physical sciences, in which our material world is described, will form an ever larger part of the studies of our schools. Now it is beyond question that these sciences present a valuable and important means of culture to the actual investigator. To follow up data of nature from their seeming diversity to their unity in natural law, to trace the order which underlies the universe, to come into unceasing contact with those great and deep thoughts of God which we call facts,—this is a work which cannot but call forth grand qualities of mind and heart in the true man of science. It imparts lessons of caution, humility, and patience,—of reverence, for fact and love of the truth for its own sake,—as well as keen observation and correct reasoning. If we could extend the discipline which moulded FARADAY and AGASSIZ, to all classes of students, the results would be of priceless value. But are we likely to reach such a result through the study of scientific text-books? Such a book is a sort of intellectual funnel through which you may pour a mass of "scientific information" into the student, without ever bringing him into living contact with a single fact. Much less will it teach him anything of the *method* of true scientific work, or impart to him anything of the mental *discipline* acquired in pursuing that method. What was in other men true and substantial knowledge, becomes in him a mere phantasm of knowledge,—a heap of definitions and statements about facts, with which he has no practical acquaintance. Out of the best text-books—as experience has shown—a student may so learn chemistry as neither to know what sulphur is, nor to recognize it when shown to him.

The most widely used of these scientific text-books is the school geography, as it is also that which has had the longest tenure of place. It may be said to date from the interest awakened by the great geographical discoveries. When we look at the long series of these books which passes through the hands of each scholar—Primary, Secondary, Intermediate, School, and Physical—and when we recollect how much of the time in school is given to this study, we are surely justified in asking that results of an extraordinary value shall be forthcoming in return for such an outlay of time, money, and attention. And there is, no doubt, a certain amount of mental discipline to be obtained from this study. It is worth while to know that the earth holds in the universe a place very different from that which our sense-perceptions seem to

assign to it. It is worth while to have some acquaintance with the great outlines of the earth's formation, and its climatic conditions. And so much most of our students do learn from this study. But by far the greater part of what is memorized out of such works is a mere dead burden of facts, with little or no claim to the child's attention. As Mrs. BROWNING's *Aurora Leigh* describes the process,

.....I learnt the royal genealogies
Of OVIEDO, the internal laws
Of the Burmese Empire.....by how many feet
Mount Chimborazo outsoars Teneriffe,
What navigable river joins itself
To Lara, and what census of the year Five
Was taken at Klagenfurt—because she liked
A general insight into useful facts.

The facts are all right, and beyond dispute, but their study is not disciplinary. They are no better than a huge mountain of words, retained by feats of verbal memory; and I have a lively recollection of the mnemonic tricks by which I got my own hold upon the contents of *Mitchell's School Geography*. And the student—I am still speaking from experience—generally needs from three to five years to have them well washed out of his brain, to make room for something else. A gentleman offered to give one of our school boys a "quarter" if he would tell him all the capitals in Europe. It was earned—promptly. "Now tell me whether they are animals or vegetables, and I will give you another quarter." "Vegetables," was the reply.

I plead for neighborhood knowledge as a substitute for much of this useless, because unreal, world-knowledge. In political economy we make a distinction between the *extensive* agriculture which spreads a small capital over a large surface, and the *intensive* agriculture which concentrates a large capital on a small surface; and, under ordinary conditions, we hold that intensive agriculture is better and more profitable. I plead for the intensive tillage of this field of knowledge; let us take a small area and do it well. Take the neighborhood, and teach the children about what of the earth's surface they see and walk on. Start from the spot where the school-house stands, and run the lines of intellectual interest outward from that centre as far as you please.

No spot on the earth's surface is so devoid of interest as not to furnish a proper starting-point. Any man, whose eyes are open to scientific facts, will find anywhere the materials of suggestion and instruction. He will show you that your surroundings contain inexhaustible treasures of illustration.

Begin, for instance, with the *geological* history of your neighborhood. Show your boys the reason for the trend of the river or the dip of the rocks, and lead them back into that old world story of submergence and emergence, collision and erosion, which was once transacted where they stand. That heap of stones which lies above the court-house was carried hither by a glacier from the Canadian hills. That change from clay to sand, in 'Squire Brown's eight-acre lot, is the turning of a new page in nature, which you should help them to read.

But a still finer opening for this neighborhood-teaching is presented by the *natural history* of your neighborhood—its flora and its fauna. In this respect there can be no question of your resources. Your district cannot be more insignificant or unpromising than are many of those places which have been so lighted up by human intelligence that we are led into the mistake of supposing them exceptionally rich in natural treasures. That bleak stretch of Cromarty shore, which HUGH MILLER has made so familiar to us by his studies, and that country-side around Truro, which his friend THOMAS DICK made a centre of interest to naturalists and geologists, are no more important in themselves than thousands of places on the Scottish coast. That English parish which WHITE has immortalized in *The Natural History of Selborne*, is not a whit richer in bird beast and insect than are thousands of English parishes. It was the presence of what CARLYLE calls "a credible person with eyes," that made all the difference.

This study will bring you into the midst of the boy's dumb companions, who are at times the victims of his misdirected interest and energy. Books will not do for him the work of direct study. No genuine naturalist was ever book-made. He was awakened to his calling by the actual sight of the living things. And these you must study before you can lead him. Show him that around him lie the results of a great and world-wide process—the diffusion of plant and animal over the earth's surface, and the adornment of that surface in gay colors through the preferences and selections exercised by bird and bee. We owe it to Mr. DARWIN and his school that these studies are no longer a matter of specimen gathering, and sticking beetles on pins, and that a new breath of life has been given them through the discovery of age-long transformations going on in parallel lines in nature. Study nature in her new and broader unities of effect, and lead young hearts to love her as a mother. In no other field will the art of seeing and of learning be acquired so well; for here you must look not for what you would like to be true, but for what God has made to be true. It is a discipline for mental veracity and sincerity, of the greatest worth.

Along with this study of natural objects, should go the study of drawing. There are minds to which nature, when approached in the analytical method of botany and the kindred sciences, has few or no attractions. They tell you they do not care to pull things to pieces, blister them with Greek names, and cork them up in bottles. The mental processes are synthetical rather than analytical, and their entrance into sympathy with nature must be by "the Gate called Beautiful." To reproduce a natural object in the simplest and most unpretentious way, is to them a process of keen delight. But it is not for their sakes chiefly that this art of drawing should be taught in all our schools. We all need such training, in order that correct principles of taste may be universally diffused, and artistic culture be made as democratic as the spelling-book. It is of little use to train the few who have special aptitudes to produce beautiful things, unless you also train the whole community to enjoy and to demand such things, and to hate ugliness when offered in any shape.

As a student of social science, I should rejoice to see the study of natural history become universal among us, and that for two reasons.

The first is its wholesome and calming influence upon the minds engaged in it. We are living in such haste, in these latter days, that the preservation of social sanity seems to grow more difficult with every year. Societary circulation goes on with increasing rapidity, and the power to resist and to overcome its restless and morbid tendencies seems to be on the decline. Nobody except a few Quakers, a few poets, and a few naturalists, "studies to have a quiet mind." Of the forces to which we might look for help in this matter, the chief is religion; but even religion is becoming a matter of high pressures, heated atmospheres, controversial bitterness, and restless impatience. The rise of a hearty and general interest in the patient and peaceful processes of nature—of a sympathy with her quiet moods of calm and sunshine, might help to cool our social fever, and to diffuse a scientific sabbath through the thought of the community. The actual increase of insanity in American society shows that we cannot go on as we have been going, unless we are prepared to reconstruct society inside the walls of the insane hospital.

My second reason is the elevation of the farming class through the retention of the best and brightest boys on the farm. At present, by a most unnatural selection, that class is drained of many of its most promising elements by a sort of emigration to other industries. The hard times have checked this, but it is, in America, the dominant tendency, and every census shows a larger ratio of city to country residents. Now the schools, as I believe, are rather helping than hindering this drain. They awake in the farmer's boy tastes and ambitions which he sees nothing on the farm to satisfy. Agriculture comes to mean, to him, distasteful and unintelligent toil, and all his aspirations go out toward city life. And the very men who should be the life of this class, and the story of whose achievements should be the story of its advances are drafted into our counting-houses, and into the overcrowded ranks of our professions. A partial remedy at least, for this state of things might be found in awakening among our farmers' sons the taste for natural history. All the wonders which are connected with the lad's every-day life,—all the open secrets of the farm-yard, the road-side, and the field,—the geology of the neighborhood in its relation to the kinds and qualities of the soils,—its native flora and fauna, and their places in the zoölogy and botany of his country,—the history of the domestic animals and plants, the meteorology of the district in relation to its agriculture, and whatever else may help him to feel that all around him lie objects worthy of study and observation, should be taught him sooner or later. He would then begin to think of his home, rather than the city, as associated with the escape from a narrow and sordid horizon which education offers. He would find the life of the farm become first tolerable and then interesting. He would look forward with delight to years spent in contact with objects, each of which had become a gate that opened at his touch, and led him into wide fields of intellectual effort and pleasure. The country would again become the darling of her brightest children, when they would not only see the outer, work-a-day garments she wears, but catch a glimpse into her mother-heart of forethought and wisdom.

Lastly, this neighborhood teaching should include instruction in the elements of *Social Science*. The *political* life of the nation and of the state touches the land at every point, and at every point their children should understand and welcome the touch. The American school that is to command the approval of our public opinion, must awaken in its pupils the love of that righteousness, which is, as PLATO says, of the essence of the state. It must develop in them the free consent to law, order, and authority, and the attachment to their native land, beyond all party ties or allegiance. And this great work could not be better begun than with the explanation of what goes on in every county-town of the land. The court, with its grand and petit juries, the election day and the solemn responsibilities of the voter, the town-meeting with its democratic modes of procedure, present a large portion of the machinery of government, to the very sight of the children. And in the school, if anywhere, those lessons must be taught which shall save the coming generations from the slavery of party and its half-truths, and secure their allegiance to their country and to the truth.

The school cannot afford to omit this teaching. If it does so, others will take up the task. HON. EBENEZER BLATHERSKITE has gathered his class in the town-square, and is giving lessons free to all who will come. The sum and substance of his teaching is, that the great contention which has divided the American people since the very first period of their united action, is simply a struggle between the pure patriots who have rallied to the support of BLATHERSKITE, and the knaves and rogues who dare to differ from him. In the lessons given by such men, this great war of principle between national authority and local interest, is reduced to a paltry squabble between the "ins" and the "outs."

The first lessons of *economic science* form an equally needful branch of neighborhood education. I do not mean that the teacher is to clear up our ideas on hard and soft money, or on the comparative merits of treasury-notes and bank-notes. But, whichever side of the recent controversy any of my hearers may have taken, he must have been struck with the ignorance of first principles, which characterized *those who took the other side*. Their ideas, you observed, were never clear on the great primary questions which lay behind the current controversy; and this shows that there is a field for teaching, quite independent of the points on which we differ.

It is more than a century since there came to Philadelphia an Irish refugee, who became a prominent publisher in this city, and wrote on this subject of *Social Science*, as well as on others. As he used to walk the streets in those days, holding his little son by the hand, he would point out to him the lessons of *Social Science* which were to be seen on our streets. That little boy is now in his eighty-sixth year, and he is the most widely known of all our citizens. His books speak to the people of Europe in eight languages; his doctrines are taught in European universities, and his authority is alleged in the debates of European parliaments and legislative bodies. HENRY C. CAREY's studies in *Social Science* began on the streets about his home; and in the streets or farms around every American school-house lie all the materials needed for the study of eco-

nomical science. I speak from experience as a disciple of Mr. CAREY, and a teacher of this branch of science, when I say that the duller minds will be awakened to an interest in this subject, when they are shown that its principles are illustrated on every street and wharf of this city.

It may be objected that special advantages for such a study are presented by such a city as this—after London, the second manufacturing city of the world, and favored with a variety of interests and an interchange of services such as is to be seen nowhere else on this continent. But the objection is mistaken. The Philadelphia of that day, to which I have referred, was a straggling town of less than fifty thousand people, along the bank of the Delaware. It had few manufactures, and little European commerce, while it enjoyed a considerable trade with the West Indies. Yet on its streets this subject was studied with a success which has no parallel. And any other locality will serve the purpose as well. The story of the settlement of your neighborhood, the transition from the lands first occupied to those which were afterwards taken up, the local variations in prices and wages, the growth in variety of occupation, the starting the first bank and its effects on business, the effects of a manufacture begun in the vicinity, the growing rapidity of interchanges, and the increased division of labor—these are the elements out of which the whole science is built up, and these elements are present everywhere.

The children of our schools need these lessons in economic science. The industrial life of the community is continually presented to them on its selfish side, as the story of individual gains and losses. The very "sums" in your school arithmetics keep that aspect before their minds, until they come to think of business as a huge scramble for money and money's worth. Economic science, when it is of the right sort, turns their minds from the thought of *gain* to the thoughts of *use*. It presents our industrial life more truthfully as an interchange of services—as a gain all round, through the friendly coöperation of each and all. Now, if ever the greedy and selfish spirit is to be banished out of our business life, it must be through the thoughts of men turning from *gains* to *uses*. "The Kingdom of Heaven is a Kingdom of Uses," EMANUEL SWEDENBORG tells us. Although no disciple of that remarkable man, I feel every day the truth of that saying. The Kingdom of Heaven will have come indeed, when every man toils in his place gladly and unselfishly, rejoicing in the uses which his work subserves, and doing it for the sake of those uses.

I claim, therefore, for the American school yet another lofty function. It is to combat the greedy, selfish, devouring spirit which threatens to take possession of the business life of America. It is to call men up to the level of thoughts at once truer and loftier, and to infuse a new motive into the industrial activities of the modern world.

Here we come upon the great social obstacle to sound and thorough scholarship—an obstacle encountered in this country more than in any other. The spirit of greed, of Mammon, of money-worship, is utterly antagonistic to the spirit which awakens in men the love of the truth, the search after truth for its own sake. Either the schools must kill that spirit, by coöperating with religion and all the other wholesome influences, or it will kill the schools. It has made its first attack upon them. It has de-

manded that they be, one and all, turned into workshops, where boys are to learn a trade. To-day it asks that the studies which fit men for their duties as men and citizens, shall give half the room to the training which fits them to become carpenters and bricklayers. To-morrow it will show itself to be the cuckoo in the thrush's nest, and will claim the whole curriculum as its own. You are face to face with your chief enemy, Ladies and Gentlemen; and I hope that the united strength of your Association will be employed to resist the general introduction of such a system. It has its proper place in houses of refuge and reform schools, not in the public schools of the land.

It is our higher institutions which have heretofore suffered the most from this money-worshipping spirit. They cannot raise the standard of age required for admission, because Young America must be making money by the time when Young Germany, though far poorer in this world's goods, is leaving the gymnasium to proceed to the university. For this reason, we have, as President Eliot of Harvard told us a few years ago, no true universities in America, for our best are but half-way between a gymnasium and a university. The Johns-Hopkins University in Baltimore, we hail as the omen of a brighter and more scholarly future for our whole country.

As I look back upon what I have written, Ladies and Gentlemen, I fear that many of my statements and criticisms must seem to you unduly sweeping and dogmatic, and even impertinent in the censure of long-established methods of instruction. I look to-night upon the faces of men who were in the harness before I was out of school, and who have given to this great work the energy of devoted and well-spent lives. Let me submit all that I have said to your more experienced judgments, while I assure you that I have not laid before you anything which has not been the outcome of prolonged thought and earnest feeling on the subject. I have confidence that you will welcome any well-meant effort to contribute to the perfection of that Public-School System, of which you are the foremost representatives, and of which all Americans are justly proud.

After the rendering of four more pieces of music, the President announced in full the

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATION OF OFFICERS.

W. F. PHELPS, Minnesota.
JOHN D. PHILBRICK, Massachusetts.
J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pennsylvania.
E. E. WHITE, Indiana.
J. L. PICKARD, Iowa.
M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.
MISS GRACE C. BIBB, Missouri.

ALEX. HOGG, Texas.
 REUBEN McMILLAN, Ohio.
 EDWARD A. SPRING, New Jersey.
 DR. J. DORMAN STEELE, New York.
 DAVID W. HARLAN, Delaware.
 J. H. PEAY, Jr., Virginia.
 A. L. WADE, West Virginia.
 HENRY BARNARD, Connecticut.
 Z. RICHARDS, District of Columbia.
 EDMUND J. JAMES, Illinois.
 A. M. GAMWELL, Rhode Island.
 W. P. HAISLEY, Florida.

A vocal quartette closed the evening's exercises.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 30th, 1879.

The meeting was led in the Lord's Prayer by the REV. A. D. MAYO.
 The President read the following letters:—

EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

To the President of the National Educational Association.

DEAR SIR:—As the vacation of our Institution deprives us of the opportunity and pleasure of exhibiting to your Association the methods of instructing the pupils, with the aid of their presence, permit me, should it be desirable, in the briefest possible way to state what is special in our educational work, and some of its important results.

The first systematic instruction of the Blind was commenced in Paris, by VALENTIN HAUX, in 1784; the first in England, in 1790; in the United States, in 1831. There are now 29 Institutions in this country.

The Pennsylvania Institution has over 200 inmates, some of them employed as teachers of others.

The great object of all such institutions is to enable the blind to become, as far as possible, self-supporting. In addition to the usual branches of the grammar and high schools, they are instructed in music and handicraft. Some of them are qualified for teachers; many of them instructors on the pianoforte, organists in churches, vocalists, and piano tuners; and a still larger number acquire some useful handicraft. Whatever may be their success, with few exceptions they all become better fitted for the battle of life, for the duties of citizenship, and for rational enjoyment.

The loss of sight has important compensations. The touch is more sensitive, not naturally, but by habitual use; the hearing is better and the memory more retentive. The special apparatus for instruction is adapted to the marvellous and exquisite touch of the finger. Books are printed in relief. Young pupils seldom fail to learn the raised print. A deaf and blind boy taught in this institution, read the entire Bible and

twenty other volumes through with his finger. Maps are prepared with tangible outlines for rivers and boundaries. States have square holes for the reception of type figures. Writing-cards have grooves in which the pupil writes with a lead pencil.

Much of the instruction is oral. The living voice of the teacher with text-book in hand, reads and explains the subject for the subsequent recitation which is well remembered the following day.

Music has a great charm for the blind. Nearly all desire to learn it, and their happiness is increased thereby. They are usually cheerful while in school or at work. Occupation is a necessity.

Many cases of distinguished blind persons could be named, if the limit of this letter permitted. The following table gives the probable results of the education of the Blind in the United States as reported to the Convention of Superintendents and Instructors, which met in Ohio in August, 1878. Of the graduates, 16 became superintendents of blind institutions; 5, of Orphan Asylums; 214 became teachers of the blind; 10, teachers in public schools; 26, students and graduates of Colleges and Theological Seminaries; 34, ministers; 3, lawyers; 12, authors; 6, medical students and physicians; 65, lecturers and agents; 299, teachers of music and vocalists; 69, church organists; 125, piano tuners; 12, composers and publishers of music; 19, teachers of handicraft; 918, employers and workers in handicraft; 277, storekeepers and traders; 45, owners of real estate; 760, females, at housework and at home, on sewing-machines, crocheting, plain sewing, etc.; 78, in "Homes" of employment; 118, imbecile or incapacitated; 431, unknown. There were remaining in all the Institutions, August, 1878, 2,292; whole number of admissions from the beginning, 8942.

Very Respectfully,

WILLIAM CHAPIN,

Principal Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind.

Philadelphia, July 28, 1879.

PHILADELPHIA, July 29, 1879.

Hon. John Hancock, President National Educational Association.

MY DEAR SIR:—On behalf of the authorities of this University, I beg leave to extend to the Association which you represent, a cordial invitation to hold the Session appointed for Thursday morning in the Chapel of our Classical and Scientific Building. At the close of the session, or at such time during its continuance as shall be convenient to the Association, several of the Professors will be present to exhibit the various laboratories, lecture-rooms, and collections.

The red and the blue cars on Walnut St., pass the University.

Truly Yours,

GEORGE F. BARKER,

for the Provost.

CLINTON, CONN., July 29, 1879.

John Hancock, President National Educational Association.

I greatly regret that severe sickness in my family deprives me of the expected pleasure of joining your meeting.

B. G. NORTHROP.

PHILADELPHIA, July 29, 1879.

To the President National Educational Association.

SIR:—I enclose evidence of a new system now being taught to classes of teachers and pupils of the Public Schools in Latin and German at Public-School buildings, by permission of the Board of Public Education. To all who may wish it I will give such explanation of its working as may be possible now where the Public Schools and with these the classes are closed; particularly, if they will favor me with a card naming beforehand their coming.

I am, Sir, most respectfully your obedient servant,

CH. C. SCHAEFFER,
125 N. 17th St.

The Rev. G. P. HAYS moved to accept the invitation to meet in the chapel of the University of Pennsylvania. On motion of W. D. HENKLE, Mr. HAYS's motion was so amended that thanks were tendered for the invitation but on account of the inconvenience its acceptance would cause the invitation was declined.

ANDREW J. RICKOFF, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Cleveland, Ohio, then read the following paper on

A READJUSTMENT OF COMMON-SCHOOL STUDIES NECESSARY.

As a consequence of the war the value of education was greatly and justly enhanced in public esteem. Never had a great truth been more deeply impressed upon a people than that the Common School is the only safeguard of liberty and good government. It is not strange, therefore, that during and after the war the devotion of the people to the cause of universal education should manifest itself in greatly-increased expenditures for school purposes. Times were prosperous, the burdens of taxation were little felt, and States and cities poured out money lavishly for the erection of school-houses, for apparatus, and all that in popular esteem is held to be most desirable for the promotion of the sacred cause.

When the *alarm* had subsided, *reaction* was inevitable, and when markets became stagnant, manufactories were closed, internal improvements were arrested and large numbers of men and women had been thrown out of business, the taxes became onerous and every cause of taxation was resented. It was quite natural, when this sudden pause came in the race for wealth, that men should open their eyes to the enormous growth and development of the educational machinery. It was to be expected that some, even among thoughtful men, should question whether all this was necessary to the ends for which common schools were originally established. It needed only the suggestion of doubt from a few of the earlier friends of the public schools, to set the lighter and more inflammable spirits in a blaze. From Maine to California the schools, especially of the cities, were subject to severe criticism and their managers were denounced as having diverted them from the purposes for which they were originally established. Metropolitan journals and village newspapers united in raising questions whether the increased

expenditures had been attended by any substantial improvement of the schools within the last generation or two, and in making complaint of the neglect of this or that fundamental branch of study. It was said that the essential elements in the education of the children of the poor and laboring classes were neglected for the higher and more ornamental studies. The crowded course was arraigned as being unfavorable to a true development of mind, hostile to real scholarship, destructive to the health of children and oppressive to teachers. It is difficult to enumerate all the counts in the indictment against the schools of to-day. Many have joined in one charge or another but there seems to be no general agreement upon any particular one, except perhaps the last, viz.—the overcrowded programmes of study and the neglect of the more important branches of a good English education. There are not a few teachers and school officers who have raised the question among themselves, whether there is not some ground for this criticism.

In this paper I propose to speak especially on this point. If there be any school man here who has found time for the reading which is necessary to form the mind, cultivate a taste for good reading and direct the attention of his pupils to that which is best, if any who have found time for a thorough, systematic, and continuous practice of their pupils in the use of their mother-tongue, if any who have found opportunity to give that instruction about the laws and institutions of our country which the citizen most needs, if there be any who have not been put to their wit's end to harmonize the claims of the older studies with what they are ready to concede to be the just demands of the new,—if there be any such teachers here, they will not sympathize with me when I say that this charge is true. The programmes of our schools are overcrowded. The best conditions of mental, moral, and physical development are not afforded even in our best schools; the fundamental branches of a good English education are neglected. Thoughtful educators have felt the truth more than their critics, but they differ from them as to what the fundamental branches of a good English education are, and hence they differ from them as to the remedies which are to be applied. For myself, I avow the opinion that it is not the addition of the new branches, but the growth of the old, which has caused the chief difficulty.

The youngest of our teachers will scarcely credit me when I say that the work required in the study of Reading, Arithmetic, Grammar, and Geography in our best schools of to-day is from five to ten times greater than it was in the same studies and in the best schools of the first part of this century. I know of no better means of proving to them the truth of this assertion than by an appeal to some accounts which we have of the schools of Boston at that period. Whatever their faults may have been, there is little reason to doubt that they were, even at that time, at least as efficient as any schools of the country. That we may understand the course of study and have the situation clearly before us, it is well to keep in mind the fact that from the time the children left the dame's schools, that is little Primary pay schools, and entered the public schools, the education of those who were destined for a liberal course of study was distinct and separate from that of those who proposed for themselves ap-

prenticeship to the trades. For the former there were two Latin Schools in which Latin and Greek were the only things taught. If the pupils needed to be taught writing or reading, or wished to learn arithmetic, they had to get their instruction in these branches elsewhere. Besides these two Latin Schools there were two *Writing Schools*. The course in these schools was very brief indeed. Writing and arithmetic were the principal studies. Although reading and spelling were also taught in them, this instruction was only incidental, "being carried on," we are told, "not attended to," while the teachers were making or mending pens preparatory to the regular writing lesson.

To the woman of the present day it may be of interest to learn that at this period the only schools in the city to which girls were admitted were kept by teachers of the public schools, between the forenoon and afternoon sessions. This of course must be understood to have been a private enterprise on the part of the public school masters.

In 1790 there was a reform in the school system, and the reformed course of study is what I want to get before you but you will not appreciate the reform, nor understand the programme unless you know the agents by which it was effected, and know something of the organization adopted.

In the year last named twelve citizens were added to the Board of Selectmen for the sole purpose of attending to the schools. Of these there were three doctors of divinity, three distinguished physicians, one doctor of laws, two judges, two who had been or were thereafter in the United States Senate, and one who was afterward Governor of the State. I mention these facts to show that probably all was attempted in the re-organization which was then thought to be possible. If such a Board would not at least aim to make the curriculum of the schools all that it might be made, in vain should we expect to find a Board that would.

In order that room might be made for girls, two other schools were established called Reading Schools. Each one of these was placed in a building with a Writing School, and the pupils attended them alternately, one in the morning, the other in the afternoon. This was the plan of organization. What was the course of study?

I quote from Mr. FOWLE's biographical sketch of the life of CALEB BINGHAM, who was one of the schoolmasters of the time. Mr. FOWLE was himself a pupil of the schools, probably from 1800 to 1810. One regulation required that the reading master should teach spelling, accent, and the reading of prose and verse and to instruct the children in English Grammar, epistolary writing, and composition. "Another regulation required the writing masters to teach "writing, arithmetic, and the branches usually taught in town schools, including vulgar and decimal fractions." The books used in the Reading Schools were WEBSTER's Spelling-Book, the Holy Bible, WEBSTER's Third Part, and the Young Ladies' Accidence. The Young Ladies' Accidence was a treatise upon English Grammar containing about sixty pages. The Children's Friend and MORSE's Geography were *allowed*, not *required*, and newspapers were to be introduced occasionally at the discretion of the master. In the Writing Schools no books were used save the copy book and a manuscript for recording the "sums" done by the pupil.

A teacher of the present day might find much to do under this simple course and with the few text-books prescribed; but what did the masters of that day find to do; That is, how was the course of study construed, what use was made of the books? Mr. FOWLE tells us that in the Reading Schools the practice was for every child to read one verse in the Bible or a short paragraph of the Third Part; and that while one class was reading, the other studied the spelling lesson. This lesson was spelled in turns, so that, the classes being large, each boy seldom spelled more than one or two words. In Grammar, the custom was to recite six or more lines *once a fortnight*, and to go through the book three times before any application of it was made to parsing."

In the Writing Schools it was ordered that the children should begin to learn arithmetic at eleven years of age. Up to that age all that the pupils did in a whole forenoon or afternoon was to write one page of a copy book not exceeding ten lines. "When they began to cipher, it rarely happened that they performed more than two sums in the simplest rules. These were set in the pupil's manuscript 'by the teacher' and the operation was then recorded by the pupil." * * * "Such writing and ciphering, however, were too much for one day, and boys who ciphered did so only every other day." Dr. MORSE'S School Geography was occasionally read by the highest class in the Reading Schools. As to the rule requiring the introduction of newspapers and the writing of compositions, Mr. FOWLE says "The misfortune was, that the rule was entirely neglected, as was that requiring composition to be taught in connection with English Grammar. The probability is that for twenty years, not a newspaper was read in any school, nor a word written."

Such was the course of study and such the practice under it in those schools of which it has been said: "There is reason to believe that more and better work was done by our schools in the early days of the Republic than is accomplished now."

A comparison between the amount of work required in the old schools and the new, may be aided by reference to the text-books used then and now. We must touch this point very briefly. Let us first look at the arithmetics. We have seen that in the early days no book was used except the pupil's manuscript which has already been spoken of. When the printed book was first introduced, it was designed only to take the place of the manuscript. It gave the rules which had previously been written out by the teacher or copied by the pupil, and the sums to be done,—that was all. In DANIEL ADAMS'S Arithmetic, tenth edition, published in 1817, space is left for the solution of all the examples, thus completely adopting it as a substitute for the manuscript which it had superseded. This was one of the most popular, if not the most popular arithmetic of its day. It was a book of 204 pages, and in consequence of the vacant space left for solutions, the matter contained in it was equivalent to not more than ninety pages of the arithmetics now published. To show wherein these books have grown we may notice the number of pages appropriated to two or three of the principal subjects treated of in three different editions of this work, published, respectively, in 1817, 1842, and 1860. These editions, in the order named, treat of percentage

and interest in 10, 20, and 45 pages; of decimals in 11, 25, and 21 pages; and of vulgar fractions in 1, 23, and 25 pages; and to show how the matter has grown to the page, I may mention the fact that though the "Rule of Three" has little more than held its own, having three more problems in the last than in the first edition cited, the number of pages has been actually reduced from 24 to 11.

Next let us look at the Grammar. The mighty growth of the treatise on this subject cannot be duly estimated at a glance; but we can give it no more. Grammar was treated of within the limits of forty-five pages of DILLWORTH'S Spelling-Book at the beginning of the century. It grew next to sixty pages in the "Young Ladies' Accidence," but now it has swelled to three or four hundred pages, the standard size of the grammars of the present day.

You will observe that I have made no allusion to the two or three books now required in each of these branches, nor to the doubling of the work required of pupils by the use of the blackboard for giving original problems, sentences for parsing, and analysis, etc., etc.

But what is the kind of material which has thus been added to these text-books? In arithmetic, what was formerly only a series of "sums" to be performed under precise direction of rules, each aided by at least one model example, has grown to be a science, every rule of which fully developed, and every principle demonstrated. The problems have grown more intricate and new subjects have been introduced to meet the demands of the more complicated business transactions of the day. The old books are their own witnesses to the fact that they gave no explanations, and as we are told by SALEM TOWN, LYMAN BEECHER, WARREN BURTON, WILLIAM B. FOWLE, all indeed who have given us any information on the subject, the teachers never explained anything, the pupils in fact were not expected to understand anything, all they were required to know was how to do the sums.—In Grammar, instead of the simple catechism to be found in DILLWORTH'S Spelling-Book, we have multiplied definitions, logical analyses and subtle distinctions are not unfrequently attempted which would put to his mettle even a first-class metaphysician.

Were it only for the eight- or tenfold growth of the work required of our children in these branches and the more rigorous exactions made upon them by our severer methods of instruction and examination, we might well pause to question whether we have not, in some degree at least, sacrificed the conditions of healthy exercise of mind and of sound mental development; whether, in the attempt to cultivate the higher powers of an immature organism we are not deceiving ourselves by a mere seeming exercise of reason where memory alone is active, and we are not thus losing time for right discipline and for the acquisition of really useful knowledge. I might say real knowledge.

But we are not yet done with additions to the course of study. While Arithmetic and Grammar have grown so enormously, two branches, almost entire, have been added to the programme. I refer to Geography, which as we have learned was only occasionally read by the highest class in the Boston schools; and History, which had not then been spoken of even as a possible study.

Still we are not done. I have mentioned only the studies which have now received the sanction of popular opinion. Each one, as it was introduced, had to fight its way. Even Arithmetic, in the beginning of the century, was thought unnecessary for girls, and was forbidden to be taught even to boys in the day schools of many towns of New England. You will please to remember that in the early days of the colonies, the statute required the establishment in every town of a school in which only writing and reading should be taught. Grammar had a still more unwelcome reception. Geography was thought an accomplishment, and History, it was said, could be read at home. These branches, however, have now obtained general recognition as the essentials of a common-school course. But there are yet others which have a pretty firm foothold in the graded schools of the principal towns and cities, whose schools are ever spoken of as models.

Many years ago, it was found that a study of books alone left dormant the observing faculties and that, in consequence, the common intelligence of the child, by which I mean intelligence regarding things about him was left uncultivated. The best scholars were very frequently found to be most ignorant of what they most needed to know. The country lad who had but a few months' schooling in the winter, and the street gamin who had no schooling at all went abroad with senses keenly alive to nature and the affairs of the world about them. The book-worm who had been so highly esteemed for his virtues at school, went through the world, but was not of the world. Perceiving this, if a man did not intend to send his boy to college, or as it was said to "make a scholar of him," he had some reason to put him to his trade, even before the limited common-school course of the day was completed. Some knowledge of physics, chemistry, physiology, botany, and other branches of natural history would have been invaluable to him, but they were to be studied only from books, with long, hard names in them, and by a method which was new and strange to him. They were, therefore, supposed to be inaccessible to the child till he had completed all the other branches of what was called a good English education. Hence he went to work totally ignorant of every science which lay at the basis of his chosen vocation. It was not then understood, or it was understood by very few, that, within certain limits, nature opens her secrets to the observant senses, more readily than through the medium of the best books. It was not generally known that very much of these sciences may be learned to best advantage while the child is young and his perceptive faculties, if rightly directed, are keenly alive to every impression from the natural world, and that, if these faculties are permitted to go without proper exercise in early life, they are stunted in their growth so that in after years they are weak and inactive. It seems not to have been perceived that one cannot become even a good reader who has not considerable knowledge of the common things about him, a knowledge which is pre-supposed in the most common writings, especially those of the present day; and that, to one who has not taken instruction from the world of nature and art, many books are sealed, even though written for popular use. But one after another these facts began to disturb the minds of teachers. Accordingly step after step was taken

though in a desultory way, whereby the process of education was improved. But what had been begun without order shortly became a system on the theory that all that goes to make up the knowledge of the commonly intelligent child touches upon and sometimes extends pretty far into the domain of every science. It was perceived that his attainments show his kinship to the philosopher, linguist, statesman, poet, artist, naturalist; that as his body grows in strength and symmetry every faculty of his mind is developed by appropriate excitation and exercise, not in succession but simultaneously. His mind grows as his body in "concentric circles," not in a few radiant lines. In recognition of these truths the obvious facts of natural history, physics, chemistry, geology, astronomy, have already been included in the curriculum of the best primary and Grammar Schools, the necessary limitation being that these facts shall lie within the observation and ready understanding of the child and that no generalizations be attempted until the number of facts accumulated demand it.

Thus far I have confined myself to the history of the growth of the common-school studies. I have not attempted to account for it. Whether the increased size of the text-books in Arithmetic, Grammar, and Geography is owing to the ambition of authors or the competition of booksellers; or in answer to the wants of modern times or to the demands of teachers, does not concern us to know, inasmuch as it is evident that it is the result of no forecast, no carefully-devised plan, no wise adaptation of means to the great end which must ever be the harmonious development of the faculties, the proper direction of human energy and the preparation of men and women for the duties and responsibilities of life. It would certainly matter little what variant caprices may have led the son, grandson, and great-grandson of a first settler to add promiscuously here and there a kitchen, a dining-hall, a parlor, a reception-room, a conservatory, a music room, a tower and what not to the original log cabin, building miscellaneous of brick, wood, stone, birch bark, or anything which chance means of transportation might bring within their reach. Whatever the thought of each one might have been, the result would be inconvenient, unsightly, and unstable. The comparison may be unjust in some respects, but it illustrates pretty well how one accession after another has been made to our course of study, each with little regard to what had been done before and still less concern for what might be needed in the future.

Please to observe that in this comparison I am speaking of the curriculum of the schools, not the resultant education of the individual or the nation. Other factors than the instructions of the teacher enter into the education of the child. The family, the world, the age, carry on their education, at equal step with that of the schools. Then, too, the mind is a living organism which appropriates what is suited to aid its growth and development and rejects much of that which is pernicious. Thus nature and circumstance go far to modify the practical results of our educational systems but the curriculum of the schools is exactly what we make it. Here the comparison holds good.

But this strange structure, built without plan or central purpose, spread

beyond the bounds to which the nature of the site should limit it, and in parts carried so high that the foundations are crushing under the weight, this structure must receive further additions, additions made indispensable by the scope of modern thought, by the multiplied, complicated, and ever-varying requirements of the market and the workshop, and by the inexorable demands of sovereign citizenship. Furthermore it is incomplete where it was supposed to have been perfect long ago. We have lately heard much said of the reading in our schools. Let me say here, parenthetically, that those who make the charge that it is inferior to what it was one, two, or three generations ago, only show their ignorance of what it has been. But I must say, nevertheless, that reading in the schools has never been what it should be. It is the reading of words, not thoughts. To rattle the shells, not to pick the kernels of thought, seems to be the ultimate purpose of students and teachers alike; hence readers do not bring themselves into contact with the mind of the author. School reading fails to attract the pupil to higher planes of thought and association. One who has learned to read, may through books extend his acquaintanceship indefinitely, he is not confined to his fellow-workmen, nor by geographical limits, but he will choose for his acquaintances only those who become congenial associates, whether the medium of intercourse between them and him be by tongue or type. A man will hardly read up to the level of what he would listen to with pleasure if the living author were present to talk with him,—hence his books will be, intellectually and morally, little better than his living companions. What we need in our schools is such reading as will so discipline the mind that the reader will take pleasure in the effort to understand what he reads, put him *en-rapport* with good writers and cultivate a taste for,—nay more, form a habit of reading that which will inform the mind and purify the heart. Then there is the companion piece to reading and the supplement to that cultivation of the observing faculties and of the common intelligence of which I have already spoken at some length. I refer to the ready, easy, and accurate use of the English language. Who will not admit that there is very much to be done in this direction? That we have been struggling for years to give such instruction and training a suitable place in our programme indicates the judgment of educators as to its necessity, and that they have failed indicates that they have too much to do already. President ELIOT was not far from right when he said, a few days ago, "I recognize but one mental acquisition as an essential part of the education of a lady or gentleman, namely, an accurate and refined use of the mother-tongue." It is this that gives to men mastery over books, insight into the affairs of human life and directive power among men. If anywhere, in the world, this command over language is necessary, it is here in America where principles too subtle for expression in the language of the marketplace wield the power of kings.

But stepping only a little beyond the bare necessities which thoughtful educators have insisted on, let us speak of two subjects which, with nearly equal unanimity, are urged upon our attention. I may first mention a knowledge of our form of government and of the principles on which it rests. Loyalty to a party is possible to those who are totally ignorant of

the first principles of good government. The cries *Vive l'Empereur* or *la Commune* are better definitions of principles than huzzahs for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" or "Little Van," but as we have seen again and again the former are as easily exchangeable as the latter by the masses, whose political opinions are summed up in fidelity to one leader or another. Loyalty to a constitution is possible only to those who comprehend the spirit of that constitution. Hence we need to teach not only the form of government under which we live, but lead our pupils to see and admire, at least as from afar off, the wisdom of the fathers in casting it into that form which has preserved it to this day amidst fratricidal war and social revolution. Nor is this all that ought to be done in this direction. He knows little of the functions of government who knows only its forms, the powers of the several departments, and the checks which they exercise upon one another. There are other lessons more easily understood, more interesting, and more important to be learned—for instance that government cannot create wealth nor interfere with its accumulation or distribution without disaster to every interest, public and private. Even children may be taught that interference with the rights of property or labor, whether by government, trades-unions, or associations of capitalists must in the end result in the subversion of personal and political liberty and finally prepare the way for anarchy and absolutism.

You may call this political economy if you choose, it is political economy, but it is far easier to comprehend these lessons than it is to understand much of the Grammar and Arithmetic which is taught in the "Thirteenth grade" of this city or the "Second Grammar Class" in Boston. They would, I believe, serve much better as means of mental discipline; and few will question their being very much more valuable to the citizen and the State.

I have reviewed the history of the growth of the common-school studies which in many States have received the sanction of statute law as fundamental branches or essential elements of the education of all. In doing this I have given chief attention to arithmetic because that is commonly thought to be most important. Grammar came next because second only to arithmetic in the esteem of teachers if not in popular favor. Geography came in for slight notice because all that is to be said of it can be said in one sentence, to the effect that it has increased its demands from the occasional readings which were "permitted not required" to the rigorous exaction of an hour per day for three or four consecutive years. Having shown from what small beginnings these branches have attained their present extraordinary proportions and having called attention to other subjects of study and instruction which, though they have been given a place in the programmes of the schools of most of our larger towns and cities, have not yet had their exact status defined; having mentioned still others which have high claims to consideration and having briefly indicated my own judgment of the value of the old studies and the new, in which judgment I know that I only agree with the most of you, I am ready, now, to submit the question, have Boards of Education and teachers been wise in extending or permitting the extension of the older studies to their present limits? I ask this question with a full view to their educa-

tional value and to their adaptation to the "exigencies of examination," as Mr. TODHUNTER puts it; but would not twice or thrice the time which our fathers gave them, suffice for us. Do we get from them an appropriate discipline for immature faculties, a discipline which can be had from no other branches of study; or, is the knowledge gained from them of more worth than that which we should gain from others? Is a knowledge of the progressions, alligations, and various solutions in fractions, percentage, etc., etc., of greater practical value or easier to master for instance than the more obvious properties of triangles and circles; or are they more necessary than a knowledge of the inexorable laws which control the relations of supply and demand? Is the discipline of mind gained from parsing and analysis superior to what could be gained by persistent and thorough drill of our pupils in the expression of their own simple thoughts in precise and elegant language? While every man may have a map or gazetteer at hand just as he has a dictionary, is a knowledge of the names and locations of the towns and the course of rivers of Africa and Asia of greater interest or value than to know the prevailing course of the winds, why a falling barometer indicates a storm, or something of that mysterious agency by which our messages are carried across the land and under the seas till they may almost girdle the earth a thousand times while it tardily moves once upon its axis. We might go on pressing such questions as these for a day, but they are all involved in one. Does not the course of studies in our common schools sadly need readjustment? I may ask, in conclusion, whether there is any subject which might more profitably engage the attention of this Association. With the material which has accumulated for years, all before us, in the light of experience and with the aid of a science of education which has received much attention of late may we not be able to build a fairer structure than that which now cumber the ground?

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., stated that the committee appointed to visit the prisons and report at this meeting of the Association would be unable to do so. He, therefore, offered the following resolution which was adopted after a spirited discussion :—

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed whose duty it shall be to procure from State Superintendents of Public Schools statistics to show what proportion of convicts in prisons and penitentiaries received full or partial education in High or Normal—in Grammar, Intermediate, and Primary Schools, and what proportion in Universities, Colleges, or other private schools—and to report such other statistics as to the relation between education and crime as the committee may deem of educational utility, and that said committee shall report at the next meeting of this Association.

The paper of Mr. RICKOFF was discussed by H. F. HARRINGTON, Superintendent of Public Instruction, New Bedford, Mass.

REMARKS OF MR. HARRINGTON.

Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:—

I hold the question before us to be among the most important to which attention can be directed, and I quite agree with Mr. Rickoff in most of the conclusions at which he has arrived. I can best express my own views by a cursory review of the conditions of the question, referring to the positions taken by Mr. Rickoff incidentally, as I proceed.

But before I begin, I wish to say a few words of a personal character. I was once in the gospel ministry, being bent on thwarting nature, by striving to make a poor minister of what might have been a passably good schoolmaster. I studied for the ministry, in part, with one of the most noted of the clergy in Eastern Massachusetts; and when I took my first sermon to him for criticism, he said, after reading it over,—“Very well, very well; a good argument enforced by good illustrations. But you have spoiled the whole by your qualifications. Now, I give you this piece of advice. Never qualify. If you have something worth saying, say it as boldly and forcibly as you can. Make your point directly and clearly and there leave it. Never qualify. You will find that there will be enough who disagree with you to make all the qualifications you will think necessary.” I have practiced on this wise precept; and as I shall find occasion to criticise our school work severely and shall not delay to qualify, I wish to protect myself from misconstruction. I would have no one imagine that I do not prize our schools. I have not given the best years of my life to their service, purposing to labor for them to the last, and die in the harness without a belief in glorious fruits from their past, and the expectation of yet greater triumphs in their future. Their defects by no means neutralize their merits.

Turning now to our subject, I remark that the present course of study in the best class of elementary schools is in several material points the outgrowth of radical reforms. Twenty-five years ago or more, the prevalent methods of teaching were vicious in the extreme. It was a systematic process of what is technically called “grind.” The teacher had nothing to do but to keep order, assign lessons, and hear recitations. His own mind contributed little or nothing towards the mental equipment of his scholars. The text-book was everything. Accurate memorizing of its contents was the summit of laudable attainment. There was according to the true sense, no teaching whatever. The schoolmaster simply sat in judgment on memoriter text-book study. There were no explanations, no suggestions, no illustrations—nothing to stimulate curiosity and quicken thought.

From this beggarly drudgery it resulted that words, which, at the best, are only symbols of thought, came to be regarded as positive intellectual entities; as being at once both the thought and its expression. They were supposed to convey to a mind which had never heard of them before, the ideas they were invented to express. Thus the scholars were taught a mass of words—words—words, without meaning and without life.

A second notable vice of old-time teaching was the prosecution of such studies as were then approved without the slightest inquiry into their abstract or relative values. Arithmetic occupied from a third to a half of the entire school time and that by no means according to the best methods. A good part of the remaining time was devoted to parsing, that absurd provision for instruction how to read and write the English language correctly; and scholars learned to parse readily all through MILTON and COWPER, who could not construct the simplest sentence without ridiculous blundering. Spelling, too, was lifted into prominence as a positive intellectual exercise; and the youth who could spell without mistake all the "jaw-breakers" of the spelling-book, was a miracle of high scholastic attainment, no matter how ignorant and stolid he might be as to everything else. And what a prodigious misuse and waste of time, these ill-devised pursuits involved!

A third prominent vice of the teaching of a quarter of a century ago in elementary schools, was the utter divorce of the school work from the realities of practical life. The children were taught nothing about nature, nothing about art, nothing about those applications of scientific truths to practical life which make up the forces and machinery of civilization and progress. There was no cultivation of the observing faculties on the one hand—no instruction in the reason of things on the other. I need not enlarge on the leanness of the training that was characterized by such a defect.

At length the true friends of the schools, of humanity, of society, opened their eyes and grew uneasy at the prospect; and when they demanded reforms in these discreditable particulars, the response of heartfelt accord which came back to them from every quarter, proved how well founded were their allegations. They demanded that the teachers should no longer be mere machines but responsible guides; putting life and interest into text-book work by their suggestions and illustrations; pouring out their own stores of information for the benefit of their scholars; holding dry formal lesson-learning to be only the skeleton of knowledge which they themselves were to round out into full and attractive proportions. They demanded that the true values of the studies pursued should be determined; and those which were found to be useless discarded, and those in excess reduced to a proper measure. They demanded that a new range of instruction should be introduced; that the observing faculties should be cultivated through appropriate channels, at least so far as that some little insight should be given to the arcana of nature, of science, and of art; enough to prevent the reason of common things, in the ten thousand instances in which nature, science, and art are forever appealing to the senses, from remaining a perfectly-sealed book. They demanded, moreover, as a final result of the new order of things thus shadowed forth, that words should no longer be taught divorced from all significance; but should be made pictures of thought and instinct with informing life.

These proper demands were gradually acceded to, and a new order of things superseded the old. But everything has not gone smoothly and satisfactorily along under this substituted regime. A loud outcry is heard on every hand, that these reform movements are all in the wrong. Better

return, it is said, to the old routine. There are so many studies now, so many *ologies* and *osophies*, that the scholars are harrassed beyond measure. They are hurried day by day from one thing to another, so that they learn nothing thoroughly and get no discipline of mind.

There is a basis of truth to these complaints; truth serious enough to deserve prompt and interested attention. But defects in carrying out a radical reform were to have been anticipated. Who has been so foolishly sanguine as to suppose it would be otherwise? What reformation was ever put in force which did not fail in some point or other, to realize its ideals, and satisfy its friends?

But it is easier to detect faults than it is to divine their sources and apply a remedy. The popular outcry that there are too many studies, and the current protest against the introduction of subjects relating to science and art do not by any means solve the problem. I will try to do it in a summary way.

In the first place, the teachers, in changing from their old constraints to the freedom of their true functions, have gone altogether too far. From talking too little they are now sinning by talking too much. Many of them keep up an almost incessant flow of remark, now explanatory, now suggestive; and instead of only removing such obstacles as their scholars cannot surmount unaided, they seem to strive to give them pathways level and smooth as a railroad track. They answer all their questions, anticipate and remove all their difficulties; so that the youth under their charge come at last to lean wholly upon them, and are indisposed to the least severe mental exertion.

Moreover, this stream of talk from the teacher breaks up the scholar's time of study with its petty distractions, dislocates his effort after a thorough mastery of his work, and frets and fatigues his mind, without strengthening or filling it. Here we have the most prolific fountain-head of existing evils.

A second defect in the methods of elementary work at the present day, (it has gradually crept in, side by side with the reforms which have been instituted) is a too frequent alternation of the studies. Tasking mental effort is eminently a deliberative process; and the moment a sense of necessary hurry is felt, the faculties become unhinged and work is imperfectly performed. There may be too many studies, as is alleged, and the vicious alternation may be, to an extent, inevitable. I shall come to that point by and by. Still if, just as they now have place, if they were differently arranged so that only a reasonable number would be pressing on the attention at once, I am satisfied that an incalculable sense of relief would be felt.

Another serious defect, tending to bring discredit on a range of instruction of incalculable importance has arisen from this mistake. The topics relating to science and art, (which have everywhere been classified as "Oral Lessons," for the express purpose of avoiding the error of overcrowding the curriculum with too many studies), have been provided for in such a philosophical way as to force the teachers to make positive studies of them. The scholars have been plied with scientific principles and technicalities beyond their years and beyond their opportunities.

Another source of evil is the gradual enlargement of the ground covered by some of the fundamental studies, such as arithmetic and geography, until their increased proportions overbear everything else, and create a prejudice against studies, which would otherwise find ample room and opportunity. But this topic has been so fully treated by Mr. Rickoff that I forbear to enlarge upon it.

At this point let me ask, who are conspicuous in making this outcry against the schools? There are several classes of the opponents of the new measures. First come some of the parents and friends of the scholars, with the complaint that there are too many studies to which I have already referred. Again, there are the prejudiced conservatives who are wedded to old methods because they reluct from anything new, and therefore are intolerant of attempts at reform. In the third place there are lazy old teachers and indifferent young ones, who hate the exertion which the new methods require. *Fourth*, there are the rigidly-philosophical minds which insist that oral teaching, especially in science, can bear no exact and determinate fruit and is, therefore, worthless. Only the first and last of these classes merit any attention.

I wish to say a few words about the oral lessons of our grammar schools. These are intended to give the scholars, most of whom will never receive any education beyond that obtained in the grammar schools, some conception of the great truths of nature, of science, and of art, which have so much to do with the commonest facts of daily life; something about the structure and uses of the vegetable world; about animals, their habits and benefit to man; about the mechanical powers and their applications to human advantage; about the steam-engine, the telegraph, and so forward. It has been arranged in the better school systems that this instruction shall be given orally, at stated intervals, to avoid the multiplication of studies; and I have already adverted to the unfortunate mistake which has been made in many quarters, of elaborating a programme for these lessons so scientific and technical as to demand positive lesson-learning for its accomplishment with any degree of effectiveness. This it is which has created the charges which prevail as to ridiculous teaching of *ologies* and *osophies*. Had there been no exaggerated pretence of scientific instruction—had abstract philosophical principles and formidable technicalities been avoided, and only common and familiar applications of science been cared for, admirable results would have been secured and vexatious misconstructions prevented.

"But," say the scientists, "inexact scientific knowledge is worse than nothing; and all knowledge obtained orally is confused and inexact."

This ground is both true and untrue. I frankly admit that any one who expects accurate knowledge to be obtained through oral instruction, so as to be fairly made the subject of critical examination by the ordinary tests, will find himself woefully mistaken. To illustrate this I will read some results of written examinations held in the London public schools. They are authentic, and I have been sorry to hear it asserted that they can easily be matched in many a public school in America. The spelling corresponds with the knowledge:—

"Where is Turkey?" asks the examiner.

"Turkey is the capital of Norfolk."

"Where is Turin?"

"Tureen is the cappital of Chiner; the peepul there lives on burds nests and has long tails."

"Gibberralter is the principle town in Rooshia."

"What do you know of the patriarch Abraham?"

"He was the father of Lot and ad tew wives—wun was called Hishmale and t'uther Haygur. He kept wun at home and he turned the t'other into the desert, where she became a pillow of salt in the daytime and a pillow of fire at nite."

"What do you know of Joseph?"

"He wore a coat of many garments. He were chief butler to Faro, and told his dreams. He married Pottifier's dorter, and he led the Gypshans out of bondage to Kana in Gallilee, and then fell on his sword and died, in the site of the promiss land."

"Give the names of the books of the Old Testament?"

"Devonshire, Exeter, Littikus, Numbers, Stronomy, Jupiter, Judges, Ruth, etc."

"Who was Moses?"

"He was an Egyptshion. He lived in a bark maid of bullrushers, and he kep a golden carf, and worshipt braizen snakes, and he het nuthin but kwales and manner for forty years. He was kort by the air of his ed while riding under the bow of a tree, and he was killed by his son Abslon, as he was a-hanging from the bow. His end was pease."

"What is a miracle?"

"Don't know."

"If you saw the sun shining overhead at midnight, what would you call it?"

"The moon."

"But if you were told it was the sun?"

"I should say it was a lie."

A remark lately made by my little grandchild four years old, further illustrates the imperfection of knowledge gained through the ear alone. She had been singing a stanza of a negro melody running,

"They have stole my love away,
To toil mid the cotton and the cane,"

and her aunt remarked, "That was very cruel of them Elsie, was it not?"

Now the little one had never before had her attention directed to the word *toil*; but she knew what *toilet* was—and what *oil* was—a word somewhat resembling *toil*. So, putting her positive knowledge forward to supply the defects of her ignorance, she answered:—

"Why no, aunty Fanny; for when she has put the oil on her hair and finished her toilet it will be all right."

But in spite of these facts, these admitted defects of oral instruction, I plead for its retention in elementary schools. I plead for the exercises technically termed "oral work." Too much must not be expected of it;

especially that must not be expected of it which it is confessedly unable to perform. But a just expectation will find it productive of admirable results. In fact it is mainly through oral communications or the ordinary one-sight reading which is practically identical with them, that the great majority of men obtain their vocabularies and the chief part of their available knowledge. The separate products of what we teach orally in our schools may not bear a rigid examination; but in their aggregate, they rightly inform and furnish the mind.

I come now to the summing-up of these reflections. A change in the studies of elementary schools is imperative; but it should be effected through the modification rather than the curtailment of the course as it now exists. I should deplore a return to the old system of "grind" or anything approaching it. For what is actually the trustworthy report from our schools? What is their condition as measured by genuine tests? What better test can be had than the evidence of the mental capacity of the American masses as displayed in the late Paris Exposition? While the exhibit from America in that great display was comparatively small, it was large enough to achieve the triumphs of acknowledged supremacy in most of the leading departments of practical art. Even of products that demand the utmost cunning of a master-hand,—whose perfection displays the dreams of the subtlest fancy wrought into visible shape with exquisite taste and consummate skill; a perfection which has been for centuries the exclusive boast of Parisian craftsmen—America divided the honors with France itself. How has this marvel come about? Whence this inexhaustible stock of resources, this fertility of invention, this nicety of taste, this mastery in manipulation; and that, not in one direction alone but in every direction in which the American mind has chosen to signalize itself? Whence but from the diffused intelligence of the American masses obtained in the public schools?

In the main then, our children are taught in the wisest way; our system is radically excellent; it needs only to be pruned and toned down. Let our teachers continue to be free; let them continue to pour out from their storehouses of knowledge—but let them learn, meanwhile, that silence, at times, is better than speech. Let the studies be arranged in such order as not to alternate too frequently, harrassing the minds of the scholars by forcing sudden changes in their trains of thought. Let the old standard subjects of arithmetic, geography, and grammar be brought within reasonable proportions; and let the "oral work" be prosecuted under wise limitations and with a clear understanding of its legitimate advantages. Then I firmly believe that all carping criticism will be prevented and our schools move on in the glory of unexampled success.

The Hon. J. D. PHILBRICK read a paper on

EDUCATION AT HOME AND ABROAD.

[This paper Mr. PHILBRICK declined to furnish for publication.—*Secretary.*]

The Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM who had been appointed to open the discussion of this paper declined to do so on account of the lateness of the hour. On motion, Mr. WICKERSHAM was urged to proceed with the discussion. Before the motion was adopted Mr. WICKERSHAM had left the room. Dr. E. BROOKS of Pennsylvania said the time was too short for a proper discussion of the paper and that it was unjust to ask Mr. WICKERSHAM to proceed under existing circumstances. He also alluded to the fact that once before, at the Boston meeting in 1872, Mr. WICKERSHAM had been appointed to open a discussion [on Compulsory Education] but the length of the Hon. NEWTON BATEMAN's paper had prevented him from doing so.

On motion of E. E. WHITE, of Indiana, Mr. WICKERSHAM was allowed a half hour at the opening of the session on Thursday morning to discuss Mr. PHILBRICK's paper.

On motion, the Association adjourned till 8 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8 P. M.

W: F. PHELPS from the Committee on Nomination of Officers reported the following officers for the next year:—

For President.—J. ORMOND WILSON, of D. C.

For First Vice-President.—JAMES H. SMART, of Ind.

For Vice-Presidents.—NORMAN A. CALKINS, of N. Y.; DAVID N. CAMP, of Ct.; EDWIN C. HEWETT, of Ill.; GEORGE W. FETTER, of Pa.; GRACE C. BIBB, of Mo.; HENRY F. HARRINGTON, of Mass.; JAMES M. GARNETT, of Md.; W. COLEGROVE, of W. Va.; J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa.

For Secretary.—W: D. HENKLE, of Ohio.

For Treasurer.—ELI T. TAPPAN, of Ohio.

For Counsellors at Large.—JOHN EATON, of D. C.; JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio.

For Counsellors.—JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Mass.; Mrs. M. A. STONE, of Ct.; A. M. GAMMELL, of R. I.; EDWARD DANFORTH, of N. Y.; W. N. BARRINGER, of N. J.; J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pa.; D. W. HARLAN, of Del.; HENRY E. SHEPHERD, of Md.; J. H. PEAY, of Va.; T. M. MARSHALL, of W. V.; GUSTAVUS J. ORR, of Ga.; W. P. HAINLEY, of Fla.; W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, of Ky.; HELEN HOADLEY, of Tenn.; REBECCA D. RICKOFF, of Ohio; E. E. WHITE, of Ind.; S. H. WHITE, of Ill.; LEWIS McLOUTH, of Mich.; JOHN P. BIRD, of Wis.; W: F. PHELPS, of Minn.; J. L. PICKARD, of Iowa; W: T. HARRIS, of Mo.; ALEXANDER HOGG, of Texas; ZALMON RICHARDS, of D. C.; A. B. CORLISS, of Vt.

The report was adopted.

W: F. PHELPS offered the following resolution, which was adopted:—

Resolved, That the Committee on Publication be and they hereby are instructed to place a copy in pamphlet form of so much of Dr. JOHN D. PHILBRICK's paper, read before this body, as refers to the Bureau of Education on the desk of each Senator and Representative in the Congress of the United States at the next session thereof.

The Rev. A. D. MAYO, of Springfield, Mass., read the following address entitled

THE NEW TEACHER IN NEW AMERICA.

Going to my office one Monday morning, some twelve years ago, in Cincinnati, Ohio, I found the stranger's chair occupied by a representative man. A small and rather ague-smitten, youngish gentleman, in dilapidated coat and trousers, legs almost buried in a huge pair of Virginia cavalry boots, and head covered by a "shocking bad hat;" with a visible crack across the right eye of his spectacles, he was evidently "one more unfortunate" left by the ebb tide of civil war in that world's receptacle of "odd fish;"—the Great West. His story was soon told in faultless English, and with a depth of earnestness which went to the heart.

He was a scion of a "highly-respectable family" in that Paradise of respectability, an old city of Massachusetts. At the call to arms he had left the very "select school" in which he polished a limited number of youthful respectabilities, and marched, in full force, upon the spunky little nation of South Carolina. His chief conquest in that turbulent realm had been a confiding widow, of middle age, who, at the close of the war, entrusted her small patrimony to him as an investment in the saw-mill business, in Western Virginia. Like the prophet of old, our adventurous friend narrowly escaped being "sawn asunder" in his own mill; and was only saved from a grave in the wilderness by another "gentleman from Boston," who bought him out at a frightful discount;—the two gay deceivers leaving the South-Carolina widow in the lurch.

He appeared in my study in a penniless state, offering to be the travelling tutor of a gentleman's son desirous of making the European tour. An hour's probing revealed the fact that he was one of those small, tinted tapers of knowledge that gracefully adorn the ornamental candlestick of a very limited "select school for young gentlemen," in an old eastern city. We advised him to turn his steps eastward, and reinstate himself in his old position. "That I have thought of, seriously,"—said he, with charming *naïveté*,—"but, it seems to me, every man of culture, whose circumstances permit, owes it to his country to be a missionary of the higher civilization to the Great West." We assured him that the Queen city of the Ohio Valley was not yet far enough along to appreciate the spirit of self-sacrifice that prompted him in this forlorn hope. Nevertheless, by the kindness of a rich city cousin in the whiskey business, he was put into a nice suit of clothes, with a pair of whole spectacles, and ticketed through to Chicago.

My memory goes back to the day when this type of schoolmaster was a good deal in vogue in eastern cities, and occasionally sent forth as an agency of civilization and culture "out West" and "down South." This sort of schoolmaster was, indeed, often a schoolmistress, whose method of instruction was eminently "polite"; looking to the rescue of a select class of educated young women from the common herd, rather than lifting the people into higher realms of spiritual freedom, knowledge, and power. A generation ago, the man who ventured to address a national audience on "The New Teacher in New America" would naturally have

understood by that teacher a cultivated man or woman, educated in some famous college or seminary East of the Alleghanies and North of Richmond, who was contemplating a venture as the tutor or governess in a respectable family in the South, or a professor or "preceptress" in a boy's college or female academy in that far-off land of big trees and malaria, whence we welcome to-day, the representatives of some of the best schooling in America, and the honored President of our National Convention of Teachers. And these people, themselves, would have been rather mild specimens of the British methods of instruction, half a century ago, than American teachers in any original sense of the word. Yet, even then, the dawning inspiration of a new life was in our national schools, and many a young man and woman who went out on this mission of culture, became, in due time, a power in a new State, or a pillar of beauty in a New American Home.

But all this is changed, and he who addresses you to-night, on the *New Teacher in New America* must put away all provincial ideas and try to comprehend the full circle of the mighty field to be tilled before he can draw the portrait of the national husbandman of souls whom the people will recognize as their leader to the New American Kingdom of Heaven. The one fact that is yet hidden from great masses of our population, indeed has hardly risen on the horizon of the average American statesman; is that the old American Republic no longer exists. Like Saul of old, who went out to seek his father's asses and found a kingdom; the old South, in 1860, went forth in quest of a "Southern Confederacy," but finds itself, to-day, the heir of a new Republic. Under the pressure that tremendous conflict these states of ours were forced to live through a century in 20 years, and to come out one of the foremost powers in the world. The one radical result of the great war was the destruction of provincialism in the American Union. Old Boston and old New-England, no less than old Charleston and old Virginia, alike "went up" during those years of destruction; and when the sulphurous cloud lifted we saw a new heaven and a new earth. A new America from the woods of the Aroostook to the sands of the gulf of California. All the might of men is impotent to carry back the valley of the Connecticut or the valley of the Rio Grande to its old estate.

Standing here to-day, as teachers and friends of the children and youth of this new world, let us proclaim this fact in the face of all comers, and, whatever others may do or forbear to do, let us steadily fix our eyes on the new Education that is the same all round the national domain; and the new Teacher who can be alike the master of souls and the captain of the New Civilization in the log school-house of the freedman in Georgia, or in the President's chair of the oldest University of the land. For the birthday of the New America was the birthday of the real sovereignty of the American people. All little expedients for outwitting the masses of the people and governing the new Republic by cliques of gentlemen, scholars, priests, or politicians are now only like animated chips striving to direct the tide on which they are whirling out to sea. We shall live or die, as a nation, as the voting and acting majority of the people can be persuaded to follow the load-star of truth and love in public policy and

private life. And with all due reverence for the educating power of the Home, the Church, and the Ministry of public life, we affirm that neither of them, nor all of them together can achieve the task of training the 8,000,000 children and youth of our new America into the citizenship the nation demands. Only one agency is competent to this, and that is an institution unlike any other that ever was or now is in the world;—the American Common School. In the great future that opens before us the New Teacher is the “coming man.”

But here, on the threshold, we are met by the spirit of the new time which replies:—“Yes, but the *new* “coming man.” The “old man” who still thinks, plots, and ravages the world with his armies across the sea, is our venerable friend, the “first Adam”; the masculine man, who began his career in the green age of the world with the verdant notion that, in the intervals of cultivating Eden and naming the animals, he could “mould” the lovely creature at his side. He, as we have heard, came out like so many an American boy with his first moustache, who tries to “mould” his girl cousin,—a prisoner in her toils and a “fallen man.” The United States of America is just waking up to the mighty deliverance of St. Paul,—“*The second man is the Lord from Heaven;*”—the new man constructed in the image of him who, whatever else he may have been, was certainly all the divinest of man this world has known; the prophecy of the man that was to come. The coming man who is to be the teacher of our American youth will be our blended man and woman, inspired, and trained into the teaching, living soul that will lift the little ones out of the private home, up into the common American manhood and womanhood, and the citizenship of the Republic that is to be.

No first-rate educator now wastes time discussing the question of the right of American girls to the highest of the higher education, and the equality of work and wages in the American common school. All questioning of this cardinal principle now goes on aside the main current of the national life; in clubs and coteries, among scholars, priests, and littérateurs, somewhat out of sympathy with the logic of republican affairs. The little island of Nantucket, on the south shore of Massachusetts, learned a generation ago, that the men could “sail off into the west” in search of great whales, and the women could make such a paradise of intelligence and energy of their island-home, in their absence, as the world had never seen. The late war taught the people of North and South the same lesson; and no people gives up an idea ground into it in the fire and blood of a revolution, at the call, even, of a club of college presidents.

Henceforth we are bound to have for our teacher the “New Man,” masculine or feminine as may be. The only question now is in the proper adjustment of the varied elements of teaching capacity in any given system of schools;—just where, best, to place the fit woman and the valuable man; also, how to utilize that not infrequent phenomenon, the gray-haired master whose heart is softer and more gifted with Christian tact than any schoolmistress that works under him; or the gentle lady principal who threshes every big boy so completely “in his inner-

most" that he is never called to the unpleasant duty of taking off his coat and being threshed "in the outermost."

Up to the last twenty years it was a great advantage to be a man before an American School Committee; and the people meanwhile suffered all things, through their children, at the hands of a multitude of ignorant, rough, and foolish teachers, who wrought upon the muscle of their masculinity. Now it is a prodigious advantage, in all things save the pay, to be a woman in the eyes of the Board of Education; and the dear people groan again over the fussing of myriads of green girls, who, but for the fascination of their sex, would be politely invited to step upward into matrimony or downward into service; at least to step out of the school-room at the double quick. In the days that are coming, as fast as our girls step up to the whole feast of knowledge in the work of preparation and take on the full responsibility of instruction and supervision in school life, they will lose this advantage of the sentimental and sexual sort. The coming school-committee man (who will be, as well, a woman) will neither be bullied by mannish assumption nor wheedled by womanish arts, in the examination of the teachers for the common school. With all wise and loving allowance for the native gifts and graces of either sex, the laws of school selection, like the awful silent statutes of Divine Providence, will execute themselves with a single eye to the fitness of the applicant, "and to him or her—who hath, shall be given more abundantly"; but "to him or her who hath not, shall be taken away, even what he hath." And never till our American Teacher is thus reconstructed, after the image of the Great Teacher, the divine Man, shall we know what wondrous things can be done with a generation of children standing on the threshold of the boundless enchantments that American life is, to-day, to every generous American youth.

This new Teacher, the coming man, compact of our man and woman, is now the corner-stone of the American Common School, the real endowment of the American University. We are, to-day, just at that parting of the ways where we cannot move a step further, in safety, in the education of the people, till the new Teacher shows us the way in which we should go.

The discontent with our public schools always drives at one point;—*that the school fumbles with, but does not teach the child.* It is asserted by multitudes of people whose opinion is worth taking into account, that the mass of American children come out of the public school, of all grades, poorly fitted for practical life. And by practical life the most intelligent of these objectors do not mean the art of money-getting alone, but the capacity for a round-about American citizenship of the sort demanded by the exigencies of the coming generation. I do not believe a great deal in this assertion as it applies to our best schools in cities, villages, and occasional superior rural districts, over the country. I believe this class of public schools, primary, high, and collegiate, is adjusting itself to the call of the age and the country about as rapidly as possible; considering the difficulty of experimenting with childhood, the most conservative thing on earth, and the constitutional obstinacy of the pedagogic character. But concerning a majority of the country district

schools, even of Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio, of the whole country, this assertion is too often dangerously and disgracefully true.

Let any man of common sense leave the railroad at any point, East or West; push a dozen miles out into the open country; examine the average district school, and say if the education of the people has kept pace with its facilities for transportation. Compare the country store, church, farm of Western New York with its improved machinery for saving labor; even the new country tavern with the school of the average country district. Can you honestly say the latter is abreast with any of the former? The only real cause of this outcry against the common schools is, that within the past twenty-five years, the American people has adopted improved methods in almost every sphere of human life, that have wrought a revolution in our whole style of existence; while the average country district, and sometimes the average village and city free school is too often left behind, floundering in the Serbonian bog of the old, slow, shiftless methods; bad enough in by-gone days, but as ineffective for modern uses as the attempt of a small boy with the aid of a pair of new boots to board the flying express train. We are not about to go off into a tirade against anybody for this state of things. The people, of course, are responsible, at the last. But no less is it true that the country now looks to the Teacher to lead American childhood out of this puzzle of an old-time school, trying to make new-time citizens. And it is plainly seen that our school cannot move a step further, indeed must steadily lose ground, unless the teacher I have already outlined comes to the front and leads the army out of Egypt, across the desert, to the promised land.

The secret of our public-school muddle seems to be that the people have done a great deal more for it during the past twenty-five years than the average teacher. While our communities, East and West, have poured forth money for public instruction in a way never heard of before in this world, the outcome of the investment has often not been up to the result of the average venture in a Chicago corner lot.

It cannot be denied that during the past twenty years the improvement in school-house architecture, and the furnishings of these "temples of science" have been remarkable. The country is filled with comfortable, often superior school buildings. One of the chief delights of an American tour is the hourly glimpse of the noble buildings erected by the people for the instruction of the children. But how often this palace is occupied by the same teachers that plodded away in the old shanty school-house; with the exception that an inexperienced girl is substituted for an inexperienced man as the head of the winter school. In thousands of villages and scores of cities between Boston and San Francisco, the new school-house is half a century ahead of the principal, to say nothing of the "assistants" who carry into the new building the old fumbling methods or no methods of instruction that would make even the Sorbonne a temple of nescience. Now, a first truth in pedagogics is that a good teacher with a shingle and a piece of chalk, under an apple tree, is a greater power than the most pompous professor of incompetency enthroned in the chair of instruction under the loftiest roof of a "new university."

2d. Our new methods of instruction, admirable as many of them are, destined as they are to become the commonplace of the next generation, have too often been "pitched into," even our city graded schools, in the way a farmer unloads a wagon of hay into a capacious hay mow; sometimes pitched in at the imminent risk of the helpless teacher who stands sweating under the falling load to "mow away." The practiced school man is exasperated in going from city to city, to see these beautiful methods of instruction in the hands, often, of old teachers, too indolent or conceited or stupid even to master their superficial forms, or of green normal graduates who set up their little card house of improved methods only to be knocked down in the first school week by any sharp boy who has a fancy to quiz the new "school-maam." We have not reflected that what we call the new methods of instruction are only the old, everlasting, simple ways by which Divine Providence, and every wise parent and teacher, since the first man, have led childhood up to the life of wisdom, beauty, and love; that only he who is in sympathy with Divine Providence and the upper side of humanity can even know what these methods really are; that nothing so completely unfits anybody to work them as a course of school-keeping in the time-honored, mechanical way. It is utterly vain to suppose you can catch a romp of a girl, in city or country, and by a year's or two years' drill in the superficial forms of Pestalozzi or Froebel, make a school teacher of her "after the pattern shown in the mount." Unless you wake up her womanhood, at first, and set all her sweet and noble womanly aspirations and faculties streaming out like a lakeshore sunrise towards the children, you will only succeed in tattooing the surface of her mind with a set of queer images, ridiculous to the roguish boy and incomprehensible to his mamma.

A great deal of this failure is due to the incompetency of the average college graduate, installed as master, even to comprehend the ability that really exists in his normal girl-graduate. How often has my soul ached with regret that I was not born a JOHN MORRISSEY to "settle" some conceited young graduate of Harvard or Ann Arbor, at his occupation of "bull-dozing" half a dozen admirable young women, from his high chair on the master's platform; too ignorant of children, methods of instruction and fine young women to do anything but try to impose on his school the absurd style of teaching under which he groaned in his college classroom. A course of pedagogics in every American college, with opportunity for practice, and occasional class-room experience with superior young women, would be a marvellous lift to the higher grade of our city schools all over the land. Until this comes to pass our normal and collegiate systems of education will be perpetually at odds with each other. The failure of the best schools to handle effectively the best methods, and the utter oblivion to their existence through whole regions of country, in the district school-house, is one of the most fruitful causes of the popular state of educational unrest.

3d. The reasonable demand for the industrial and technical education of young people who are to live by the labor of the hands, cannot be met until the teachers of our common schools better comprehend two things; first, economy of time in school work, and, second, the art of awakening

the observing, reflecting and executive faculty of children through better general methods of instruction. The proposition of certain enthusiastic specialists and energetic manufacturers to take half the time of the average school child, from 6 to 12, for instruction in mechanics, shows a lamentable ignorance of the condition of the average school child in the average common school. The fact is, that, under the present modes of instruction, there is not half time enough to teach this child the small allowance of common knowledge without which every young mechanic will be an incipient communist. We want no addition to the mob of ignorant, godless workmen, with one little talent, without the brains to turn a hand to a new emergency, or to see that the way to encourage men to work for property is not to turn to and ruin all who have already succeeded in gaining it. The wisest authorities in this matter seem inclined to the idea that until the age of 12 years, the best thing to do for an incipient American workman is to give him a thorough common-school education, by the best methods. This will generally expand his mind, wake up his higher powers of observation, reflection and execution, and place him before the specialist, ready to run the race, with untold advantage over the child distracted by the effort to go to school and study a profession before he is out of his mother's lap. As soon as the average teacher is able so to instruct the child, up to the age of 12, he shall have the foundation for a splendid system of Industrial training. For six years of real instruction by a real teacher, will do more to qualify a boy to be President of the United States than the fifteen years of primary, grammar, high, collegiate and professional training through which half the superior youth of America wade in search of the millennium of success in life.

4th. The complaint against "cramming" and the "multiplicity of studies" in our schools would be robbed of its force by a race of competent teachers. Col. PARKER, of Quincy, Mass., trains his schoolmistresses to teach an Irish, freckled-faced boy or a slow Welsh girl, more in two years, without weariness or confusion of mind, than the schoolmaster of my youth was able to impart in six years, with only the "three R's" for a course of study, and a daily threshing thrown in. Whenever you find the people grumbling because the children are "crammed" and confused by study you may pretty safely infer that their teacher is competent to teach nothing well, and has not learned the a, b, c, of the pedagogic art;—the ability to correlate the studies and call forth the powers of the child in the school-room.

5th. If the American High School, in cities, persists in building itself on the corner-stone of the Latin Grammar, and whips its pupils through the old-time regulation course; all the while aping the airs of the university of the past; it will be more and more discussed whether the people shall be justly taxed to support it. If it builds on the corner-stone of a thorough knowledge of our glorious English tongue and its marvellous literature, with a generous superstructure of science, history, social and political economy, that philosophy which is the knowledge of man, and the use of the languages of the great modern nations; the people cannot be beaten out of its support, and will gladly build the wing to the free High School to fit the boy and girl for college. The sooner our High Schools are offi-

ered by the superior and comprehensive teaching men and women, who appreciate this fact, the sooner the discordant clamor now rising against them;—a strange orchestra, in which the pundit of the University, the sectarian priest and the ward-politician, guiltless of letters, combine;—will subside.

6th. The pinching of our popular economies in school expenditure, with much that is deplorable, like most things evil, has in it a half-good. It is a melancholy fact that the majority of the school teachers in the United States are fairly paid, considering the kind of work they do. *No class of unskilled laborers is now paid anywhere in Christendom, as the people of the United States pay the army of unskilled teachers who "worry along with" the children in the common schools.* The average parson, Catholic and Protestant, must go through years of study and training;—at least wait till he is twenty-one years old;—before he can be permitted to rear a family or live unmarried on \$400 per year. The average lawyer and doctor would starve to death a hundred times, the first ten years of his practice, could he not eke out his scanty wages by some outside occupation, or rely on his friends for support. By what right, then, does the crowd of "nice girls" who scorn even to know there is such a profession as "pedagogy," demand to be kept afloat as school teachers by the State on their voyage to matrimony? A few months ago I received a note from a presumably young woman, suggesting that, as "a dear friend of hers" lived adjacent to one of the largest school-houses in our city, she would be glad of a situation as teacher therein. Her opening sentence, like the famous child's tale, was a "story without an end," beginning with the present participle and running up a tree; but she offered to send her photograph! The American people may not always take the prize for strict honesty in dealing, or for sound theories in finance; but it is not a stingy people, and rarely starves a man or woman who is visibly doing thorough, useful, consecrated work. The teacher, like the minister of religion or the physician, who does not so love his work that he would do it at the risk of his life, in any emergency, and thank God a hundred times every day that he is permitted to do it at all, is not fit to be on the salary list of any school-committee. When this class of teachers is the majority, they will be supported with the generosity characteristic of the most generous people that ever lived on the globe.

And especially is the most vital question in school life;—the character-training of children by moral and religious instruction and discipline;—wholly within the province of the teacher. It is not easy to disentangle the cross threads in the popular fallacy about "secular education," which affects especially the editorial and small political mind. But what a great many good and intelligent people do mean is:—*that until a teacher has in some way become an incarnation of the great principles of living taught in the Bible, his daily reading of it in school is only one more added to the great crowd of educational shams.* We all have heard of the daughter of the woman that made the champion loaf of bread in her native town, who, in her visit to her city cousins at Thanksgiving, was asked to go into the kitchen and make a loaf of her mother's famous bread. She said:—"No; I have always observed that ma stirs in a great deal of judgment when she

makes her best bread ; and that I could never understand." That is the difficulty with this whole matter of Bible-reading and moral and religious instruction in common schools. When the teacher has "stirred in" her Bible so completely that she is a walking representative of the Sermon on the Mount, the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, and the Golden Rule, and is so endowed with spiritual tact and wisdom, that her learning, her daily walk and conversation, her discipline and whole method of instruction fit the spiritual nature of the child as her new pair of white gloves fit her hand ; the wrangle over the Bible in the school will die out in that district. Until this is measurably true ; especially while the school-rooms are filled with careless, irreligious or frivolous young men and women, "waiting for something better to turn up," the trouble will grow.

I once knew a schoolmaster who shamed a roomful of quarrelsome boys into manhood by opening his Bible and reading, as he could read, the two words : "*Be courteous.*" I remember another master in the days of "auld lang syne," who descended in wrath from the platform while the scholars were reading the morning exercise in the Bible, with his finger shut in on the passage, "*God is love,*" and boxed the ears of mischievous Master TIMOTHY DWIGHT JONES with the holy Book till "young TIMOTHY" deeply regretted that he had not, like his namesake in the *New-England Primer*, "early learned sin to fly." I don't believe the school committee would delay long about the use of the Bible in the case of the former master ;—nor of the latter ! The cure for the weakness of the character-side of the school, or the pangs of the sectarian religious conscience, is not the separation of American school children into sectarian squads under the drill of the parish priest ; nor the banishment of religion and morals and the Bible from the school-room ; equivalent to exhausting the oxygen from the atmosphere ;—but the determination of the people that only teachers of established character, wisdom, and tact, shall be established in the chair of instruction at all. Then it will be understood that the roots of every true science and art, no less than the roots of religious and moral living, strike deep into the soil of reverence for the old eternal sanctities that make the world what it is, and preside over the endless succession of the eternities to come.

In every point that has been considered, the vital issue is now a superior teacher. And by this general assertion, I am not unmindful of the claims of the great and increasing number of excellent teachers in actual service ; especially in our improved country, city and village graded schools. I would not disparage the merit that has been gained by hard-earned experience in the schoolroom, because it has come "across lots" to the goal and not by the regulation road of normal training and improved methods. I only say to such experts what they are too ready to confess ;—that it is too expensive to sacrifice a dozen school-rooms full of children in order to polish up one schoolmistress, who, as soon as she becomes valuable to the State is also a successful candidate for higher honors in the state of matrimony. I also feel keenly the indignities, humiliations, and positive injustice inflicted upon our meritorious teachers everywhere nowadays, by the barbarism, that, in the name of economy, cramps the soul that the body may still enjoy its little luxury or base indulgence. Nobody shall

surpass me in charity for the failures or appreciation of the success of the teaching corps; especially of that vast throng of young women on whom the country has cast the hardest burden ever yet laid upon the tender shoulders of a generation of ambitious and patriotic girls. But, surely, in a public matter of such pressing weight as the fit education of American children, no man has a right to let any consideration of sentimentalism or personal affection, or philanthropic zeal, stand between his best judgment and the good of the State.

Nobody so well understands as the superior teachers of this land how imperious is the necessity to vitalize and reconstruct the teaching force in our national schools, and how impossible it is to move forward another step without this reformation. Let me then indicate three of the essential tests which we must apply in the examination of the new Teacher.

1. The primary question to be asked, or to be answered without the formal asking, of every American teacher in the common schools should be:—"*Is your love for children, and your desire to make them true men and women, and good citizens of our New Republic, the controlling motive in entering this profession?*"

The only successful teacher in the common school is the man or woman who sends the child from the recitation bench with more respect for himself as a child of God, a son or daughter of man, and a citizen of the United States of America; with the conviction that all knowledge and culture and power must be made to tell directly in the growth of a manhood or womanhood able to meet the call of the life that is now swiftly coming upon him. There is no danger that any teacher will be too highly cultivated in anything. There is deplorable danger that our superior teachers, especially, will mistake the point of success and ruin the schools by an ineffectual ambition to make experts of the mass of mankind. Special culture is the prerogative of the few, and the place for its development is the modern University or the special school. A wise, able, refined, patriotic, and Christian manhood or womanhood is the prerogative of every child in this Republic; and upon that central point must all our reforms in common schools be made to bend.

2. The second test in the examination of the New Teacher follows hard upon the first;—*the power of absorbing all culture into character and general ability of manhood and womanhood.* There are two sorts of teachers who rear up two sorts of pupils. The first are people of strong aptitudes which grow out in one direction in a way that enfeebles the general life, and projects the pedant and pedagogue in the most extreme sense; like a tree that runs to one splendid branch which burgeons forth into an oppressive luxuriance that absorbs the vitality of the trunk. Too many a mighty school-master or lofty schoolmistress strikes the common sense of a wise school-committee man like the last big cannon out of KRUPP's foundry; mounted on a carriage just adequate to hold it up to the firing point, liable to be made kindling-wood at the first discharge. Of all educated people, these are the most mischievous to our average boys and girls in school. For nothing is easier than to fill a class of commonplace youth with the idea that each of them is just such a "great gun;" with the fatal result that each turns his life into a series of petty explosions of a pop-gun mounted

on a carriage of jack-straws. The other style of teacher is the man or woman who grows visibly every year, all round, in the graces and noble traits of a superior character, as the result of increasing culture ; and who imparts, or awakens the power in the child to change to blood and weave into muscle, bone, and brain, all that goes in at the senses, and the open soul. It is this power of teaching the art of assimilating knowledge into character and competency for the highest uses of life, that must be looked after by the examiner of teachers with a lighted candle. And the normal school, which does not, in some way, select the girl who has this faculty and train her up to a commanding power in the school-room is not really a training-school of teachers, but a second-rate academy with a big normal sign over the door.

3. We must all the time be aiming at real experience in the teacher. And by that I don't mean we must wait till a man or woman has lost youth and begun to droop into the "sere and yellow leaf," before we give an opportunity to do good work. Experience is as varied as the varieties of human character. Divine Providence is here our best guide. Every little child, certainly in New England, in the regular order of God's appointment, has a young or youngish mother, a less young maiden aunt, and a more or less venerable grandmother. Doubtless the grandmother has the widest experience of life in general ; and the maiden aunt has certainly the most brilliant theory about the management of infancy and childhood. But, for the best of reasons, the dear Father of us all selects the young girl-wife, full of the sweet and uplifting experiences of new love and the consecration of her earliest years of married life, to be the mother and closest friend of the new darling just let loose from heaven. The best "experience" in a school-room full of little children, after fit knowledge and training in sound principles and methods is secured, is the warm heart, boundless aspiration, and faith of a deep-souled girl-teacher. Her love and trust and youthful sympathy with the little ones is better than the scientific drill of the gray-haired expert or the wire-edged furor for culture of the learned woman whose love for the child has given place to admiration for the "great souls" and "ideas" of literature, science, and art. We need all kinds of experience in the common school ;—the experience of the fit girl-teacher for the little ones (of course, there is no objection to an "old girl" of fifty summers, if she keeps her girlhood all the time in a state of high preservation) ; the experience of mature age and long observation, for supervision of the young teacher and dealing with older grades of pupils ; and another experience, most valuable in its way, of the wise committee-man or woman, whose successful career of instruction has been supplemented by success in professional life ; and who is, therefore, able to overlook the school-room from the vantage point of a large acquaintance with affairs. All these varieties of experience suppose a fit period of preparation in academical and professional discipline, and happily, if the preliminary training can be secured for our superior young women, that quickness of sympathy and the general high tone of energy and intelligence, peculiar to our best American girls, will insure some years of good work in the lower city grades and the country districts, before the coming of the inevitable day when they are called "to

go up higher," and be, themselves, wives and mothers or single women of superior mark in the public or private woman's career.

But how is the New Teacher to be "evolved" out of this huge "protoplasm" of good, bad and indifferent people now at work upon the children?

First, by the enlargement and consolidation of our present State Normal Schools into genuine universities of the pedagogic art; so good that they will become the models for methods and the valuable exemplars of the New Education. The State now destitute of such a school will do the best service to National Education by concentrating all its funds into one such University, with broader scope and higher aims than any now on the ground. As aids to this central agency, every city of sufficient wealth and population should support a training school for girls; both State and city school being closely linked to the common schools of the locality for the important service of practice.

Of course, the prodigious demand for trained teachers cannot be met by the graduates of these State and city Normal Schools. It is probably too much to demand that the whole supply should be furnished at public expense. But the State can, at least, support enough of these valuable universities of instruction to furnish a model for all efforts in this direction. Then let public opinion compel every College, every superior Academy, and every free High School to establish an elective course of instruction in the philosophy and art of Instruction. The commanding influence of the State Normal Universities could be relied on to keep this department up to a high popular demand. The gain in scholarship, alone, to the large number of students who pursued knowledge with the view of imparting it, would be ample compensation for the experiment. In this way, by calling into activity the better teaching power of our best public and private establishments we might hope, in a reasonable time, to build up a real profession of Instruction.

I believe that time will come when the offer to teach a school of any kind by a person of no experience or education in the art of Instruction, will be as severely repudiated by the people as the offer to preach the Gospel, or heal the sick, or plead the law, by a man of no professional preparation. It may be that a man needs no special education to be an "American Statesman," in Congress or caucus; but if the schoolmaster and schoolmistress are experts, these amateur Senators and Representatives will not be so able to keep us perpetually in hot water and deluge the country with periodical freshets of civil suds, as just now. Flood the land with well-trained candidates for the most honorable office in the Republic;—the post of teacher for the young in the common school. Then since "few" incompetents anywhere "die, and none resign," as fast as the better sort come in, see that the feebler sort are relieved; and out of this "great revival" will come forth, in due time, the New Teacher, for whom we all wait and pray with uplifted hands.

One April day, while wandering through the Spring loveliness of the city of New Orleans, I found myself opposite a great school for the freedmen, and went in at the open door of the basement. There I saw a restless crowd of infants gathered from the street, the sweepings of the most hope-

less ward of the great city, under the care of one child-woman, who needed no certificate to assure me that the New Teacher had come to that corner of New America. She told me her story. "I was the daughter of a family of wealth and social rank in Cuba. In a late revolution there, the family fortunes went to wreck and I was left, an orphan, afloat in the wide world. One good friend brought me to New York, and another friend sent me down here to teach the freedmen. I went where I was drifted by a hard fate, as I thought, but was led as I now see, by a gracious Providence. For see what these little reprobates are teaching me! A year ago I had a temper like gunpowder and no faculty of self-control. Now, I must rule myself, or this mob will destroy me. And every day I am taking a step forward towards a womanhood of which I never dreamed in my father's house."

Was not that little schoolmistress a "mother in Israel," reading us all a lesson on the mighty art of government in these days of reconstruction upon which we have come? We can glare at each other out of the depths of our old hatred, in the Congress of the United States, a hundred years; and what will come of it all but new disaster, endless hatred, and final calamity for mankind. But if we can all forget each other's grievances, and turn our back on the past, while, with one accord we bend together and "take the little children in our arms and bless them;" if we can learn the sovereign art of self-control in the effort to train them up into a broad, intelligent, and loving type of the American woman and man; may it not be that, like her, we shall discover that no hard fate, but a gracious Providence, has brought us face to face with this supreme duty of the hour? And then may the old prophecy, like so much of the ancient wisdom of the world, turn out the latest revelation of the present hour; while in the New Teacher of New America shall appear the latest disciple of the great Teacher of souls, of whom it was said in the ancient days:—"The spirit of the LORD shall rest upon him, the spirit of wisdom and understanding, the spirit of counsel and might, the spirit of knowledge and the fear of the LORD: And shall make him of quick understanding in the fear of the LORD; And he shall not judge after the sight of his eyes, neither reprove after the hearing of his ears: But with righteousness shall he judge the poor, and reprove with equity for the meek of the earth: And he shall smite the earth with the rod of his mouth, and with the breath of his lips shall he slay the wicked. And righteousness shall be the girdle of his loins, and faithfulness the girdle of his reins. The wolf also shall dwell with the lamb, and the leopard shall lie down with the kid; and the calf and the young lion and the fatling together; and a little child shall lead them."

After music Miss Mary McCurdy, Teacher of Elocution in the Girls' Normal School of Philadelphia, read a humorous selection.

On motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON, a committee of five, on Necrology, was appointed by the President:—*Committee*, HENRY BARNARD, of Connecticut, ZALMON RICHARDS, of the District of Columbia, W: E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, and J: D. PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts.

At the request of Mr. BARNARD his name was dropped from the committee.

After a solo the Association adjourned till next morning.

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 31, 1879.

The Association was opened with prayer by the Rev. C. K. NELSON, D. D., of Annapolis, Md.

On motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON, the Committee on Census, appointed by the Department of Superintendence at its Washington meeting, last February, was continued, and directed to report either to that Department or to the General Association.

On motion of the same the Committee on State School Systems was also continued.

Mr. EATON then read the following papers:

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONGRESS AT BRUSSELS IN 1880.

The Kingdom of Belgium celebrates in 1880, the 50th anniversary of its national independence. Brilliant festivals, exhibitions, and conferences will be held. It has also been decided to hold at Brussels an International Educational Congress, at which, questions relating to Kindergärten, primary and industrial schools, secondary and superior education, school hygiene, educational museums, etc., will be discussed.

A committee of arrangements consisting of 30 educators, has been appointed. Mr. COUVREUR (member of the Chamber of Deputies) is president, and Mr. CHARLES BULS, secretary of this committee.—(*Freie Paedagog. Blätter*, Vienna, July 16, 1879.)

THE VICTORIA UNIVERSITY.

The authorities of Owens College, Manchester, and of the Yorkshire College of Science, Leeds, have already taken the initiatory steps for preparing a constitution of the new University for the North of England, for which a charter has recently been granted. The council of Owens College have appointed a committee of their body, and on Friday they met in conference at the college in Manchester, with representatives of the council of the Yorkshire College of Science, for the purpose of considering a draft constitution for the new institution. The basis of the deliberations of the conference is to be found in the series of suggestions contained in an appendix to the memorial which was presented to the

Privy Council some time ago, but various questions will come before the meeting for consideration, including the power of granting degrees to women, and the better representation of the graduates and the teaching staff upon the board of governors. Considerable progress was made at the last meeting in preparing suggestions for a draft of a proposed charter, though each of the clauses was very fully discussed before adoption. When the conference has completed its task it will report to the council previous to the scheme being submitted to the law officers of the Crown. —(*London Times*, July 14.)

ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, offered resolutions in relation to the Higher Education of Women, which were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, then proceeded to discuss the paper of Mr. PHILBRICK. The following abstract of his remarks is taken from the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, edited by Mr. WICKERSHAM, and hence is presumed to have passed under his inspection.

MR. WICKERSHAM'S REMARKS.

Mr. WICKERSHAM stated by way of introduction that the social and political institutions of the Old World are so different from those of the New, that it is difficult to find a fair common standard by which to compare systems of education at home and abroad. He agreed with Dr. PHILBRICK that our own system has elements of strength and elements of weakness when compared with the systems in operation in European countries; but he could hardly agree with those who thought the latter predominated. He believed the American system on the whole is best for America.

As Dr. PHILBRICK had confined himself to pointing out the respects in which the American system is strong, he would supplement his paper by briefly referring to some points in which he considered it weak. But, first, he would make a few comments on the conclusions reached by the author of the paper, whose views should have much greater weight than his own, as his opportunities of observation had been greater.

Mr. WICKERSHAM said he would hardly agree with Dr. PHILBRICK that the National Bureau of Education is one of the strong features of our system of education in the United States, or one likely to be extensively imitated abroad. He had been from the first a warm friend of the Bureau, and had a high appreciation of the work it had done and was doing; but it is, in its organization, an extremely weak educational agency when compared with the Departments of Public Instruction in France or Germany. In these countries and in other European countries, the Minister of Public Instruction is a full cabinet officer, with all the powers possessed by our National Commissioner of Education, and with many additional powers. Indeed, such officers in Europe have almost as much control of the educational forces of the country as the Ministers of War have of the armies. Centralization like this is contrary to the spirit of our institutions, but there is no good reason why our Bureau of Education should not be a

full Department, and our Commissioner of Education a cabinet officer. Until this shall be done he feared thoughtful Europeans would be apt to consider our system, comparatively, rather weak than strong at this point. They may copy our methods of collecting statistics and publishing reports, but they will do it by an agency subordinate to their comprehensive and powerful departments.

Our schools are *free*. Every State in the Union has a system of public instruction absolutely gratuitous. This is not the case anywhere in Europe except in some of the little cantons of Switzerland. The paper does well in claiming that this is *the* strong feature of our system.

Nor are the public schools graded in Europe as they are with us. There are public elementary schools in all countries. The several governments provide much more liberally than we do for secondary education, high schools, gymnasias, colleges; and great universities are everywhere in large degree supported by the State. But there is no organic connection between these several classes of institutions. A boy cannot enter a primary school and thence advance directly and in due order to the grammar and high school, and it may be to the university, as in the State of Michigan. Elementary education in Europe is one thing and is under one management; secondary education is another thing, and is in a general way, under a different management, and in most cases there is an unbridged chasm between them. All this comes of the pregnant fact that in the monarchical countries of Europe it is no part of the policy of the educational authorities to lift the common people above the humble sphere in which they and their fathers have moved from time immemorial. For this reason the magnificent school organization of Germany would break to pieces in a day if applied in this country.

I am not so sure as my friend, Dr. PHILBRICK, seems to be that one of the strong points of our system is the settlement we have made of the question of religious instruction in connection with the common schools. Have we settled it at all? Is our practice uniform? We have completely secularized the schools in some places, but in others there are daily religious exercises. The general tendency would seem to be towards the adoption of *unsectarian religious instruction*, and the drift in some European nations is in the same direction. But, as I understand the matter, this is now substantially the *status* in Germany, Holland, Switzerland, and other countries; and, if so, we are in this respect comparatively behind.

The United States spends much larger sums of money for elementary education in proportion to the population than any other country in the world, and much better provision is made for higher female education here than elsewhere; but on these points the paper read by Dr. PHILBRICK is sufficiently full and strong.

Among the features of our American system of education comparatively weak, is the shortness of our school terms. The elementary public schools in Europe are open everywhere during nine or ten months in the year. Even in the poorest districts there are no school terms of three, four, five, or six months in length. Averaging the school term in all our States, it would probably not exceed five months. There is certainly no room for boasting here.

The tenure of the teacher's office is far more uncertain in this country than abroad. European countries generally require more preparation to enter upon the work of teaching; but when once placed in charge of a school, a teacher is almost sure of his position during good behavior. If in the country, the teacher in most cases has a house and lot in connection with his school, and thousands of teachers never change their location during their whole professional lives. This custom, however, is not an unmixed good. Teachers abroad as well as at home, secure in their position, are apt to allow themselves to become rusty in their studies and to fall into routine methods of teaching that unfit them as instructors of the young. No teaching in America could be more inefficient than some I saw in various parts of Europe done by schoolmasters who had grown gray in the service. Notwithstanding the youth of our teachers and their frequent changes, I believe we do the best teaching in the world. Our teachers seem to have more versatility of knowledge, more flexibility of character, a more inspiring manner, a method that not only helps the pupil to learn present lessons but prompts the ambition to master future ones. I would rather intrust the average American teacher with a school, unlearned and inexperienced as he often is, than I would the average German or French schoolmaster though he may be a graduate of a university and have spent twenty or thirty years in the school-room. There is something in the free institutions of America, something in the very air we breathe, that fits men and women to become good teachers. Still, it must be acknowledged that the uncertain tenure of the teacher's office is a serious drawback, weakening the whole teaching force of the country.

Schools are better inspected in many of the most enlightened countries in Europe than they are with us. The inspectors are picked men and specially trained for their work. Their tenure of office is such that they can perform their duty fearlessly. The number of schools placed under the care of each is such that he can make his inspection close and critical. And the truth may be added that effective supervision everywhere makes effective schools.

In the United States the fight for Normal Schools has not yet been crowned with victory. There is scarcely a State in which their friends do not at times have reason to tremble for their safety. And yet with us, Normal-School graduates enjoy no monopoly of the work of teaching. No favors are shown them over others. They must win their way by dint of superior qualifications. In European countries educationally the most advanced, no one is allowed to teach who has not been regularly trained for the work. The policy of establishing and supporting a sufficient number of Normal Schools to supply all the teachers needed, is no longer questioned. The Normal Schools have no enemies but the enemies of the public schools themselves. They have quack doctors there as here, and in about the same proportion, but the government tolerates no quack teachers. Little children, at least, are shielded from the touch of the ignorant and the unskilled.

The nations of Europe give much more encouragement to higher education than is done in this country. High schools, lyceums, colleges, gymnasias, polytechnic schools, universities, all are in great measure under

government control and receive government patronage. Indeed, the great purpose of the authorities would seem to be not so much to make education universal as to educate *experts* in every field of art and industry. *Skilled leadership*, in the civil service, in the army and navy, in the professions, in shops and on farms, seems to be the great aim of the most enlightened educational systems of the Old World. In this country we allow our higher institutions of learning in the main to take care of themselves; there are men among us even who would ruthlessly strike down our partially-developed public high schools, while in happy contrast with our narrowness is the liberal course of nations abroad who "with one hand furnish elementary education to all, and with the other make every effort to aid the born leaders of society in fitting themselves for their appointed sphere."

These, it seems to me, are some of the weaknesses of our system of public education. There are others, but time is wanting to speak of them now.

Mr. WICKERSHAM was followed by Messrs. PHILBRICK and EATON, the latter presenting copies of French Reports on Education.

ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, then read the following paper designed for the Department of Industrial Education, which had been crowded out by the length of Mr. SPRING's practical illustrations of sculpture.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, OR THE EQUAL CULTIVATION OF THE HEAD, THE HEART, AND THE HAND.

When Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON gave utterance to that grand conception,

*"On earth there is nothing great but man;
In man there is nothing great but mind," **

he evidently had in view man as a duality.

Still further, in *this* duality, he ranked the mind as the higher, or spiritual nature—the body as the lower, or material nature; the mind as the gem—the body as the casket; the mind as that which should be cultivated,—polished;—the body as the mere vehicle or receptacle only, to be considered as the environment of the citadel, the seat of the mind.

And we find this idea coming down from time long anterior to HAMILTON, and even since his day, as is exemplified in the partition which is kept up by the doctors of medicine and the doctors of philosophy—the former claiming the body, the latter the mind, agreeing only in the determination that this partition shall be eternal. And we find their partisans following the same law of separation, contrasting and alienating these two, to the certain disadvantage of both the mind and the body.

What is needed, is first, to consider man as an entirety. As an entirety, so far as no one part shall be secondary to any other, shall neither be dependent nor independent, but shall be distinct yet united into one

* HAMILTON quotes this from an ancient philosopher whom he does not name. It was PHAYORINUS.—*Secretary.*

harmonious whole. And, secondly, to educate him as such. This education may be roughly considered in relation to the Head (the mental), the Heart (the moral), and the Hand (the physical man).

And now, in order to do this, of the whole range and vast extent of studies, there must be *some* "selection."

And here again arises the question: What shall we select? That which will best prepare the whole man for the active and real duties of after life, whether these duties be professional or otherwise.

To the learner, I would say, study that which will fit you for the selected business or chosen profession of your life; and to the teacher, teach that which will be the most beneficial, will be the most useful to your pupils, taking into consideration the vast fields of employment which lie spread out before you; and which from their importance and utility, will most likely draw to them the greatest number of the human family, but who can not, or do not, at an early age, select definitely their future vocations.

Turning to the census of the United States, 1870, and carefully comparing the occupations, "upon the basis of all occupations" being 12,505,928, we at once see that of this number there are engaged in Agriculture, 5,922,471, or nearly one half; in professions and personal service, 2,684,798, or over one sixth; in trades and transportation 1,191,238, or over one twelfth; in manufacturing, mechanical and mining industries, 2,707,421, or over one fifth.

It was, doubtless, to give those following industrial pursuits an opportunity to obtain a *liberal* as well as practical education, that the Congress of the United States, in 1862, donated 10,000,000 acres of the public lands to the several states and territories, to establish and endow colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts. Our wise statesmen saw there was a great disparity in the advantages educationally, as presented by the older colleges for the training of the professional classes. There were scores of universities and hundreds of colleges, but all for the sole purpose of educating professional students, Lawyers, Doctors of Medicine, and Doctors of Divinity; or institutions of high grade endowed and maintained for the education of the *one sixth*, while nothing had been done, except through the liberality of a few large-hearted and enterprising individuals, for the education of the agriculturists, the manufacturing, mining, and mechanical industries, trades and transportation, or in round numbers, for the remaining *five sixths* of all occupations.

Well might Prof. PERRY, of WILLIAMS College, say, that he could point out one hundred lawyers, who have exerted more political influence in the State and nation than all the six millions of farmers have done. Politics is the business of the lawyer,—the forthcoming statesman; and is it not fair to suppose that, in his chosen field of action, he should be skilled, and highly skilled too? Farmers, mechanics, and, in a word, the whole industrial fraternity, pay little or no attention to politics—it is not their stock in trade. Just as fair an argument could be made by stating that a few priests control the great bulk of the church, and, therefore, they wield more influence than all their followers.

I agree with President ABOR that, "farmers, as a class, do not take the

social and political rank that their numbers and influence entitle them to." Nor do those following other industrial pursuits, that is, they have not done it, but that they may do it is the object of the industrial education now taking place and rank in every State and territory in the Union. That they may do it, that their influence and rank may be commensurate with their numbers, is the object of this distinct and specific and separate training given them in our colleges specially endowed, organized, and conducted for them by the various governments of the old countries, as well as the states of our own. And if we are permitted to run a parallelism between the two kinds of institutions, taking the rich and munificent endowments of the colleges and universities for the education of the literary classes and the centuries through which they have existed, and the results which they have accomplished; the industrial schools, with their meager appliances and short duration, will not lose in this comparison.

But it is not the object of this paper to *underrate* or *overrate*, to decry or magnify, but simply to plead for the industrial classes, equal chances, equal endowments, equal appliances—endowments and appliances commensurate with the importance and numbers of the industrial classes.

In our country, we need Harvard and Yale, Princeton and Columbia, and the Universities of Michigan and Virginia. We need these and more too. But we need, also, the industrial colleges, brought into existence by the act of Congress, July, 1862, enlarged, more liberally endowed, and more thoroughly equipped for the education of the industrial classes in their several pursuits and professions in life. Congress should at once, since every State and territory has accepted the donation, take steps to increase and enlarge the usefulness of these institutions. Most of them, owing to the unequal distribution of the land, are still without the proper means to carry into effect the full intention and scope of the grant. Few, indeed, if any, have the means to go much beyond the bare curriculum of a literary college. Some few are attempting, upon a small scale, the agricultural feature, while fewer still, if any at all, are attempting the mechanical department.

I am better acquainted with the status of my own section, and I know from a lack of proper funds as endowment [is] obtained wholly from the grant, little, if any thing, is attempted beyond the teaching of "such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." The military department is well equipped and well handled, the United States furnishing both the arms and the drill officers. Again, besides the glitter and glamour, the hope of distinction and its sure and speedy reward, the regulations of all these colleges make it obligatory that all students not physically incapacitated shall belong to the corps and perform military duty.

If anywhere, in these peaceful times, a choice should be given a student to *select* or *elect*, it seems to me, there is abundant space in the military department. I have heretofore written out at length and defined what I thought should be a proper course of instruction for these Industrial Schools—what branches of study should be set before the student.

This course should embrace the following studies as lying at the foundation of a practical, as well as liberal education:—

The order of study need not be insisted on, for here, as well as elsewhere, large latitude should be given to the student, in all cases regarding his preparation, his time, and his means.

A COURSE OF INSTRUCTION:

- I. LIVING LANGUAGES: *English, and French or German.*
- II. MATHEMATICS: *Pure; embracing Form and Extension; Applied; Mechanics and Astronomy.*
- III. DRAWING: *Right-Line and Free-Hand, Topographical and Design Drawing.*
- IV. PHYSICS: *Properties of Matter, Molecular Forces, Heat, Light, Sound, Electricity and Magnetism.*
- V. CHEMISTRY: *General Chemistry; Chemistry Applied to the Arts, Laboratory Practice, with Reagents, Blow-Pipe, and Spectroscope.*
- VI. NATURAL HISTORY: *Zoology, Comparative Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene; Botany, Geology, and Physical Geography.*
- VII. HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE: *General History, Special History, Political Economy, Rural and Constitutional Law.*
- VIII. MUSIC: *Vocal and Instrumental.*

I have interchanged the order: placing "practical" before "liberal" education. This has been done for a reason, because whatever insures the one must insure the other, for, whether we examine the courses of the *old* or *new* education, we find the same classification of the *same* studies. It is only *the how* these studies or courses are pursued—how they are taught—that makes the difference in the result, "Hath not the potter power over the clay?" "Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it: Why hast thou made me thus?"

Again, let us borrow an illustration—wisdom, indeed, from every branch of industry. The carpenter uses the same tool to do very different kinds of work. The same *saw* to cut *across* as to rip, to cut lengthwise, but he "*sets the teeth*," as it is termed, very differently; so with his *planes* and *chisels*, still they are all planes or all chisels.

So I conclude that it is in the direction of these studies, which are but the "tools" of the teacher.

Put into the schools and colleges what you would have appear in the people; put into the teachings what you would have appear in the scholars.

Let illustrations of the truth be taken from the farm, from the workshop, from the mason, from the calico printer; turn to account every example; show how this truth is used, or that fact is embodied in the every-day concerns of life. We must comprehend at once, and admit in the beginning, that the objects of the industrial college are very different from the objects of the common college; the former are for the education of men for an *industrial* pursuit, the latter for the so-called learned professions. The object and result of the curriculum college is culture, mental discipline; the object of the scientific college is *investigation*, and the result should be KNOWLEDGE.

To revert to the "Course of Instruction." It may not be amiss to set out how these several studies should be pursued; for example of the living languages, take the English. It seems to me that the language of MILTON and SHAKESPEARE is as classical as the language of HOMER and VIRGIL, and doubtless were a moiety of the time spent in our mother-tongue that is spent in trying to collect a little Latin and Greek, we should have, at least, better English scholars—more practical business men.

In the study of our mother-tongue we may profit by a remark of HERBERT SPENCER: "As grammar was made after language, so it ought to be taught after language." Words are simply symbols; they are the tools of the speaker and writer in order to express his ideas. Then to acquire facility to express—power to convey our thoughts—seems to be the object of studying our own language. This, like any other acquirement, can only be attained by constant practice in the language—practice in writing and speaking. The actual use of the language is, therefore, the only method to acquire it. As the apprentice acquires dexterity from the actual *planing and sawing*, so the student of English becomes fitted or able to speak and write his language by speaking and writing it, and that continually.

But while doing this, a step further should be taken, really is taken, in the literature, in the etymology, and in the history and philology of the language; so that, in addition to the facility and power of expression acquired, there will also be acquired the equal training or mental discipline attributed to the study of the classics.

French and German should be studied, as the classics used to be, as the repositories now of scientific investigations—investigations pertaining alike to agricultural as well as to other industrial arts.

Although I have adhered to the common division of mathematics into *pure* and *applied*, I think such division unfortunate, as leading to the belief that there are two kinds, and that pure is different from applied. This classification originated in the usage in teaching or studying pure mathematics as a means of disciplining the mind, nor do I doubt this at all; but I as heartily affirm that the study of the application of these mathematical truths also disciplines the mind; and, therefore, with the advantage that in an addition to the abstract truth gained only by the former, is added the application or the knowledge of how this is done. Or, to put it differently still, the solution of a mere problem does not increase the ability to think; it is the *thinking* itself that gives vigor to the mind; and hence, if the problem to be solved is a practical, and not merely an abstract one, there is a gain of the knowledge of the application.

Besides, even in the mathematics, "facts are before theories." Take the celebrated proposition of PYTHAGORAS (the 47th of EUCLID) and the history is, that PYTHAGORAS said he saw the truth long before he could prove (or demonstrate) the fact, that "*the square on the hypotenuse of any right-angled triangle is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.*"

And the carpenter daily uses this same principle in his concise rule—"6," "8," and "10"—in "plumbing" and "squaring," as it is termed.

One other illustration in what is called the higher mathematics. It is

known, and is now proved geometrically, that the area of the cycloid is *three times* the generating circle. GALILEO practically showed this long before his pupil TORRICELLI demonstrated it, but in a mechanical way. Having selected a piece of metal of equable thickness and uniform texture, he cut from it a piece in the shape of a cycloid and also a piece equal to the generating circle. Upon weighing these separately he found the portion representing the cycloid to be exactly *three times* as heavy as the portion representing the circle.

Cases showing that theories are really subsequent to facts even in *pure* mathematics might be indefinitely multiplied, but the above are sufficient for illustration. Then :

How mathematics should be taught in an industrial school is no longer debatable—its sphere is fixed, and the results will be certain.

The right line should be *drawn*—the *ruler and compasses* should be the constant companions of the student of mathematics "*for the carpenter stretcheth out his rule ; he marketh it out with a line ; he fitteth it with planes ; and he marketh it with the compass.*"

It is a beautiful idea, that the drawings or diagrams of all mathematical and scientific works are the same, regardless of the language of the text, and hence the French artisan can understand and execute the design of an American or German artist with as much facility as if it had been devised by the cunning hand of one speaking his own vernacular.

Drawing is the perfection of illustration, even of our thoughts. Parables are word-drawing, and hence their frequent and successful use by the Greatest of all teachers.

Drawing, therefore, should be taught in conjunction, and at the same time with mathematics; is really an integral part of mathematics.

The order should be as indicated. *First*—RIGHT LINE; *Second*—FREE HAND; and *third*—DESIGN DRAWING, whether for architectural or mechanical purposes.

Physics and Chemistry: It is difficult to determine an order for these, they are so intimately related to each other, and so directly allied to every industrial branch that their importance cannot be overestimated in a course of instruction for practical education.

"The study of physics is twofold. It consists of two distinct yet complementary processes—the tracing of facts to their causes, and the legitimate advance from the cause to the facts. In the former process, called *induction*, certain moral qualities come into play; requires patient industry—a conscientious acceptance of what nature reveals. The second process in physical investigation is *deduction*, or the advance of the mind from fixed principles to conclusions which flow from them, so that, in the study of physics, *induction* and *deduction* are perpetually married to each other."

Some one has not inaptly said "that physics is a science lying midway between astronomy and chemistry," and this may be said to be true; that physics, as applied to the weights of enormous masses, is astronomy; and as applied to atoms and molecules, is chemistry.

The subjects of physics proper are those which lie nearest to human perception; the heat and light of the sun, sound, motion, color, electrical

attractions and repulsions, thunder, lightning, rain, snow, dew, and so forth. Through our senses we are enabled to examine these phenomena, that is, to unite the external world and the world of thought.

Chemistry: Somewhat in detail may be said to be that science which investigates the composition and properties of bodies, and by which we are enabled to explain the causes of the natural changes which take place in material substances. As a science chemistry is of the highest importance to mankind, since, by its investigations the practical arts are constantly improving. Chemistry is intimately connected with a great variety of natural phenomena. All satisfactory explanations of the causes of rain, hail, dew, wind, earthquakes, and volcanoes, have been given by the aid of chemical knowledge. The phenomena of respiration, the decay and growth of plants, and the functions of the several parts of animals are also explained in a satisfactory manner only by its aid. As an art, chemistry is connected more or less intimately with nearly every branch of human industry, and particularly with agriculture and manufactures. In its application to agriculture, chemistry furnishes the most direct and certain means of ascertaining what a barren soil wants to make it a fruitful one, and also what ingredient any soil requires to adapt it best to any given kind of produce.

Our most common and useful articles are manufactured entirely by chemical processes. The making of soap, glass, bleaching salts, the several kinds of acids, and almost every kind of medicine, depends wholly on the manipulations of chemistry. The arts of the potter, ironsmith, tanner, sugar-maker, distiller, brewer, vintner, paper-maker, and painter, are also connected in various degrees with chemistry.

In a word, the arts draw from it with every succeeding year increased advantage, and the condition of mankind is elevated, and the world advanced by its progressive triumph. It opens to us mines of agricultural wealth in what would otherwise have passed for worthless refuse. It clothes exhausted fields with new fertility, by the addition of some failing constituent whose absence its subtle processes have detected. It carefully investigates the laws and conditions of vegetable growth, by which earth and air are converted into food for man and beast, and thus places us on the highway of sure and rapid improvement.

By the study of physics and chemistry we have opened to us treasures of power of which antiquity never dreamed; we lord it over matter, but in so doing we have become better acquainted with the laws of mind; "for to the mental philosopher material nature furnishes a screen against which the human spirit projects its own image, and thus becomes capable of self-inspection."

Says Dr. HENRY MAUDSLEY: "Of old it was the fashion to try to explain nature from a very incomplete knowledge of man; but it is the certain tendency of advancing science to explain MAN on the basis of a perfecting knowledge of nature."

With the researches and results of the labors of this and other distinguished physiologists before me, and believing, as I do, in addition, that we can understand the mind only through a clear and definite understanding of the body; of the man in his entirety, I think the time has

come for demanding that the curriculum of modern liberal education be so reconstructed that its courses of study shall have a more direct and positive bearing upon the most desirable of all knowledge—a clear understanding of the laws of human nature; and for this reason I have added natural history, as embracing physiology.

A term, however, rather limited, and I would prefer to insert as one of the cardinal divisions of the course, the scientific study of human nature, comprehending both physiology and psychology.

Although I have said much, and possibly that, too much in detail, respecting physics and chemistry and the study of human nature, I cannot refrain from adding a word or so in regard to *geology and physical geography*.

In this scheme geology and physical geography should hold a prominent position. Geology is the *history* of our earth. It will afford both pleasure and instruction to study these periods—to examine *these volumes*—to present them in comparative estimate—to note the difference “between the fancies of ARISTOTLE and the facts of HUMBOLDT—the conjectures of PYTHAGORAS and the observations of AGASSIZ—the *ideal* of PLATO and the *real* of LYELL.”

Geology teaches what is useful—what is desirable. It is important to notice that the construction of a building does not consist merely in the nice and beautiful adjustment of its various parts, but in the preparation of suitable material, and the working of that material in such a manner that the building, when complete, shall be handsome, useful, and *endurable*. Geology tells us that among Azoic rocks, the most valuable for the erection of houses and monuments are *granite, gneiss, etc.*, etc.

Physical geography begins, really, where geology ends. It concerns itself only with the present completed condition of the globe. “To us our own earth is the most marked feature of nature, viewed on its inorganic side; to us it is the planet best known of all, or rather the only one closely known, the point whence we draw conclusions on the whole universe, the resting ground for the glass that searches the Kosmos, to use HUMBOLDT’s word.”

CARL RITTER says: “The earth is the grand floor, so to speak, of nature; the home, or rather the cradle, of man and of nations—the dwelling-place of our race. It is not merely a region of immense spaces—a vast superficies; it is the theatre where all the forces of nature and the laws of nature are displayed in their variety and independencies. Besides this it is the field of all human effort and the scene of a divine revelation!” Hence the study of our earth, a comprehensive and systematic treatment of *the land, the water, the atmosphere, and life upon the earth*; the laws that govern the situation, extent, outlines, and relief of the *land-masses*; the cause, the extent, the connection, and the influence of the *great oceanic currents*; the *distribution of heat* upon the surface of the globe; the general *atmospheric movements*, and what is their cause, course, and influence; what laws control the *periods, distribution, and amount of rain* upon different portions of the globe; the general laws that govern the *distribution of vegetable and animal life*, and how all these laws are related to the character and well-being of the human family, should hold no second place in any system of practical education, unless it be to the study of MAN him-

self ; for, while science may claim to be "*the right interpretation of nature*," man is still THE INTERPRETER.

History and Social Science: These should occupy a place in the finishing of the English-language course ; should come as studies in the higher classes, and should be designed to afford a general view of the history of mankind and of the phenomena of the social organization and progress of the race. Should also embrace the history of the arts and sciences and of civilization, the philosophy of history and the principles of political economy and constitutional law.

Instruction here should be mainly by lectures, together with suitable readings from standard authors prescribed by the professor in charge of the department.

Music: Vocal and instrumental, with painting, come under æsthetics, belong rather to the ornamental, the accomplishments, but should occupy a place and receive that attention commensurate with its importance. It is true all cannot be taught to sing or to discourse sweet sounds, neither can all ever be taught the mathematics or the sciences, still they can be taught something. Vocal music should be one of the daily exercises, for this would give proper exercise to the lungs, expanding the chest, and really arming us to ward off pulmonary disease. The celebrated Dr. RUSK was of opinion that the fact that the Germans, as a people, are seldom afflicted with consumption, is due to the vocal exercise of singing.

We know that singing constitutes an essential part of their education. Apart, however, from this view, singing is a delightful pastime and a great preserver of good order.

I go further. The vocal organs ought still more to be trained, for the result it must have upon the power of expression. Too little attention is paid to this in the *curriculum* for training in the so-called liberal professions. How lavish we are in the purchase of instruments of music, and in keeping them properly tuned and cared for ; yet this most wonderful organ, the voice, which God has given to every one of us, is left for the most part in utter neglect, totally uncultivated and undeveloped.

I have omitted from this "course of instruction" the Ancient Languages.

This has been done advisedly ; from no disposition to ignore or to underrate the classics, but from the pressing necessity to select from the great number of studies, those not only pertaining to, but, if possible, those directly contributing, to industrial pursuits. Time must be economised. Knowledge is what is demanded.

"To know well is to understand causes," and in no profession is there a greater demand for varied and extensive knowledge than in the arts.

The study of the ancient classics should be conducted in the same manner as the geologist now studies the fossils—to understand if possible, the character, condition, and peculiarities of the people once speaking these—to determine really their thoughts, their ideas. This is a pleasant and profitable study too, but it does not advance the knowledge of the present day.

The study of the Pyramids may develop some lost characteristic of the Pharaohs and Ptolemies, but is not profitable to American engineers.

The Pyramids, with their hieroglyphics, may do well enough for

Egypt—for Africa, but like CLEOPATRA'S Needle they will not bear transportation—even their very substance will crumble and decay under the atmosphere of England or America. I have no quarrel with the antiquarian or the archæologist. * If you have time, taste, and means to study dead Rome, dead Greece, dead Egypt, and dead Syria,—do so.

But;

"Is the acorn better than the oak, which is its fulness and completion? Is the parent better than the child into whom he has cast his ripened being? Whence then this worship of the past?" Where we were, is night; where we are, is day!

It will also be observed that I have insisted on the study of social science, general history, political economy, and have pointed out when these should be introduced, viz.:—As the finishing of the course in the English language; in a word, I have endeavored to be as consistent in the studies pointed out for the education of the whole man, as I have been earnest in my advocacy of the study of man in "his entirety."

Or, to put it otherwise, in life we have to deal with our fellow-man as well as with earth and air and water. By our experiments upon soils and our superior cultivation we may make "two spires of grass grow where one grew before;" we may make two bushels of wheat, or of corn, or of barley; we may double our produce, and thereby double the market, and to no purpose unless we can double the demand. The same may be said of our mining and our manufacturing; but we have besides to settle with the miner and manufacturer before our science or experiments can do us any good. Heat and light, electricity and steam are great monarchs; but they are powerless to aid us unless we can come to some understanding with our neighbors. Therefore the study of man in another aspect, in the social relation, must be taken into the account; his past, his present, and from these what his future actions will be. This is provided for in the scheme laid down in the systematic study of history, social science, and political economy.

Again there are numerous allied or kindred subjects of study which grow out of the main branches enumerated. A judicious selection of these must be made. Probably, too, the "course" itself, mentioned, may be too extensive for many students; if so a choice again must be made, and the branches selected that will aid *most* in the preparation for the future pursuit of life.

And here let me illustrate. The older College curriculums may be likened to a splendid banquet, with its numerous cloths and courses. The guests are expected to eat of each, and, in due order, adding at each change, to rich viands rich wines, and the result is, before the banquet is half over, many of the guests are sick, many of them are intoxicated with the round of good things of which, contrary even to their taste, and especially to good taste, they have been forced to partake. Few can drain the cup of HERCULES. ALEXANDER could not do it. When I look at the curriculums of many of our foremost Colleges, I feel sad for the young students who have got, somehow or in some way, to get through them. What I wish set before me is the American Restaurant, "On the European style," if you please: I wish a choice, however extensive the bill of fare. Our

industrial schools, specially, should present for their students a bill of fare of wholesome studies, and not too numerous at that; and even then with an option as between *rival studies*.

So much for a "course of study." Parallel with this, and at stated periods of the day, should the practical or Hand-course be carried on; Shop-work or field-work, or both, as may be selected; but under the same conditions and in the same way as the several studies, or Head-work. I make no distinction between an hour at the blackboard, in mathematics, and an hour at the bench, whether in *vice-work* or *lathe-work*. No difference between the hour in the field planting and pruning, in sowing and reaping, and the hour in the laboratory analyzing and determining the peculiar ingredients of the soil to be sown. These are parts of their lessons of instruction,—these add *practical* education to *liberal* education.

And herein does it seem to me, that the properly-endowed and liberally-equipped industrial school has the advantage over the common literary College.

The students of the former know, or have an opportunity to know, all in the theoretical or literary department, and the practical besides, or, to put it still stronger, the student of the Industrial School, not only knows how his instructor says a nail is made, but he knows how to make a nail himself.

That Industrial Education is fast gaining ground and importance can be shown from the programmes of this very Association.

At the first meeting at which I was present, at Detroit in 1874, only one paper on the subject was read, and that was simply about the "National Endowment for Scientific and Technical Training."

The next meeting, in Minneapolis, in 1875, there was organized of this Association,

AN INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

At the present meeting the programme shows that there are in some form or other five distinct papers under this head.

I do not know what induced Mr. Rickoff to present a paper upon "A Readjustment of the Common-School Studies Necessary," nor do I know what his reasons are, or his plans, but I know we must see to it that the Elementary Instruction, whether public or private, is largely fraught with the studies that lie at the basis of the Industrial Structure.

Colleges and higher institutions of learning can, and do, control the work below. The entrance examination, if held to and insisted on, benefits, not only the applicants for admission to these classes, but the whole substratum of schools, forcing their teachers and directors to keep abreast with the increasing requirements, by faithful study upon the part of pupils,—conscientious instruction upon the part of teachers, so that the thousands who do not enter college at all, are yet properly taught in all the studies laid down for the Entrance Examination. Our Industrial Schools should insist upon an Entrance Examination in kind, as well, if possible, as in quality, even more rigid than our Colleges and Universities. Then there would be no conflict between these institutions and the High Schools and Academies,—certainly none between them and the Colleges for literary and other professional training.

I do not believe in conflicts.

The conflict between Science and Religion, is simply a huge *aberration* resulting from the irregular reflections of the rays of light as they emanate severally from the theological or scientific side of the luminary. These conflicts, so called, serve as pretexts for discussion, and thus is kept up a perpetual war of words,—nothing else,—the earth moves on as in the beginning,—religion is religion,—science is science,—and the followers of each have space plenty, and time abundant to make good in their own judgments, their peculiar notions.

In educational matters we want diversity of opinion, and diversity of work. My lot has fallen on the side of Industrial Education, and I wish simply to magnify, to enlarge, to extend it; to supplement only, not to supplant liberal education, but to add to liberal education practical education. I wish to couple the education of the Hand with that of the Head, believing that they both will be greatly enlarged and benefited. I wish to put the same opportunities in the reach of the industrial classes, so that in their peculiar sphere, they may obtain an equivalent education with the literary and professional classes, in their spheres. Nor do I desire to do this by lessening the chances of the latter. I would not have one University less, nor one college, nor one academy less. I would only increase the number of industrial schools, enlarge the boundaries of the industrial classes, and induce them, *if possible*, to appreciate and embrace their opportunities.

In these discussions we are wont to catalogue and array the experiences, the successes, and the “transcendent” advantages of the schools of England and the Continent. Personally I do not appreciate these the less, nor do I mean to underrate their efforts, but as an American, I confess I feel prouder of my own country every day, and especially so, when I see the comparative results as exhibited at the various world-expositions, whether at home or abroad.

I trust I do not lack veneration for the past, or a liberal appreciation for the contemporary work of other countries, but I must be pardoned for my strong faith in our American institutions, literary, political, and religious, and through these, for seeing our manifest destiny as a nation. I would not if I could “unsphere Plato,” rob Neptune of his Trident, or break the magic spell of Jove’s thunderbolts—I only wish in this age, and in this era, and in this my country, in our great system of education a division of the labor,—but with equal endowments and equivalent advantages in all departments, suited to all spheres and conditions of society.

So far, I have said little, if anything, about the education of the Heart, or the moral man. It is needless to discuss this formally—it is so interwoven with, and inseparably related to, all education that it must be a constituent part of it. In the geometry of being the education of the heart should claim the dignity and importance of a *theorem*, but to my mind it is a *corollary*, following directly from both the education of the head, and the education of the hand. But to show that “*the course of instruction*” does not lack these branches, and these subjects which

cultivate the heart—the emotions, the sentiment of Religion—the necessity of a GREAT FIRST CAUSE, let us revert to the course.

Take the subject of Chemistry only: "The study of chemical science reveals to the mind a beauty and harmony in the material world to which the uninstructed eye is blind. It shows us all the kingdoms of nature contributing to the growth of the tiniest plant, and feeding the nascent germs, by the inter-revolution of their separate spheres. It shows us how, through fire, or analogous decay, all forms of life are returned again to the kingdoms of nature from which they were derived."

Demonstrates to the scientific agriculturalist that

"That which is sown is not quickened except it die. That seed and plant, blade and ear, flower and fruit, leaf and bark, that sun and moon, earth and sea, brute and man, are from the same hand of Omnipotence."

And here let me ask if the poet could declare—

"The undevout astronomer is mad,"

what shall be said of the husbandman, who "daily witnesses, under the influence of God's chemistry, myriads and myriads of vital cells ferment with elemental life; germ and stalk, and leaf and flower, and silk and tassel, and grain and fruit grow up from common earth: 'the bow of promise' fulfilled, the 'gracious covenant' redeemed, *'that while the earth remaineth summer and winter, and heat and cold, and day and night, and seedtime and harvest, shall not fail.'*"

"Does he witness, by a nobler alchemy than that of Paracelsus, the transmutations of the 'bare grain, it may chance of wheat, or some other grain'—to-day a senseless plant—to-morrow human bone and muscle, vein and artery, sinew and nerve, and beating pulse and toiling brain—is he the witness of these daily manifestations—himself the subject of these miraculous changes—his own body the very crucible in which these wonderful transformations are continuously going on, and yet does he—can he doubt—can we doubt?—that—*'as we have borne the image of the EARTHLY, we shall also bear the image of the HEAVENLY.'*"

But these are beautiful glittering generalities—they are panoramic—they address themselves to the eye and the ear.

Fellow-teachers, what of the heart? Of what manner of spirit are ye? Upon this subject we can occupy no doubtful ground to-day. I desire "no uncertain sound." Prattling childhood found me at my mother's knee; playful boyhood around the altar of my father's humble fireside; strong manhood, student-life, teacher-life, citizen-life, have all found me upon the side of Christianity. Brethren, "we be the sons of one father, aye, brothers, the sons of the same household, 'the elder brothers' of our generation. Our words, our examples, our influences, silent as they may be, are set before a host of scrutinizing witnesses, who will note every act and word, and for which to them and our God we must give an account—when parent and child, teacher and pupil, must be gathered at the feet and in the presence of the Great Master, who knoweth the Head and the Hand only through the Heart."

The taking of membership in the Association was urged by the President, the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, the Hon. JOHN EATON, and the Rev. G. P. HAYS. W: T. SEAL announced that members of the Association are admitted free of charge to the Permanent Exhibition at the Centennial grounds.

After a short recess JAMES M. GARNETT, LL. D., President of St. John's College, Annapolis, Md., read the following paper on

THE HISTORICAL METHOD IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH.

In examining the methods of teaching languages now pursued in our most progressive schools and colleges, the student of language is struck with a change in the methods of instruction as compared with those used even fifty years ago, or perhaps much more recently. It was then customary to learn by heart the inflexions of the classical languages, and the rules of grammar, and to apply these rules in reading, until the student was familiar with the syntactical construction of the language, when his attention was devoted chiefly, if not exclusively, to acquiring facility in translation and a knowledge of the subject-matter of the author. There was no instruction of moment in composition, and little, if any, in etymology, in the tracing back of words to roots, and in the origin of forms and constructions. Some of our older scholars are wedded to the older method and regret the change, saying that, whereas now there is greater knowledge of the structure of the language, and of its relations to cognate languages, there is less facility in reading it, and less knowledge of the classical authors as literature; there is too much grammar and too little translation. But I do not see why the one should exclude the other. It is certainly a disadvantage if our teaching of grammar and etymology should hinder the acquirement of a full vocabulary, and should obscure the literary merits of the classical writers. The two methods should be combined; the former will help the latter, if much reading is insisted on, and instruction in technical grammar is not allowed too great a preponderance.

But, we are led to inquire, what has caused this change? What has led to this more thorough study of etymology, and of the origin and relations of forms and constructions? It must be attributed to the revelation to the western world of a knowledge of Sanskrit by the English scholars in India a century ago, its eager reception by the Germans, and the consequent building up of the science of comparative philology within the Indo-European, or Aryan family of languages. The great German masters of this science have builded better than they knew, for little did they foresee all the consequences which would follow from their labors. Their term for the science, *vergleichende Sprachwissenschaft* (likening speech-knowledge), expresses the idea better than our English term, for it is essentially a *knowledge of speeches* which consists in *likening* word to word, form to form, in order to determine their common origin, and how they have come to be what they are. No such comparison is possible except by means of the oldest forms of words in any language, or group of lan-

guages. This may be seen from the use made of the Gothic language, in the Teutonic group, for purposes of comparison with Latin, Greek, and other members of the Indo-European family. Hence arose the necessity for tracing each language back to its oldest form, and the thorough study of its oldest period; and hence the historical method of study is the child of the comparative method. The present century first saw the birth of the comparative method of study. It was ushered in with the publication by BOPP in 1816 of his comparison of the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Persian, and German systems of conjugation, which was soon followed (1833-52) by his great Comparative Grammar of the Indo-European languages, and the study continued in the labors of POTT, SCHLEICHER, and a host of others, so that we can now boast of a dictionary (FICK's) of the root-forms of the Indo-European parent-speech, ascertained by the strictest scientific process of induction.* This method was not, however, limited to the whole family of languages, but was applied to its several members, and first to the Teutonic group by GRIMM in that *αγγλικὰ ἐς αἰτί*, his Teutonic Grammar (1819-37), popularized of late years in the excellent little work of HEYNE, (1862, 2d edition, 1870), so that any one may now study for himself without an instructor the comparative grammar of the six principal Teutonic dialects. GRIMM's work furnished a model for the application of this method to the Romance languages in the work of DIEZ (1836-44), and here we were at an advantage in having the parent-speech ready to hand, and in being able to trace more easily the historical development of the several languages. As a result of the application of the comparative method to these two great groups of languages, attention was directed to the historical study of both German and French, and the periods of Old and Middle High German, of dialectic Latin and Old French, were assiduously studied, so that it is now possible to learn both of those languages historically.

It was inevitable, from the position of *Anglo-Saxon* as one of the principal Teutonic dialects, and its inclusion in the work of GRIMM, thus furnishing a basis for its scientific study, that the historical method must sooner or later be applied to English. As was naturally to be expected, this was undertaken by the Germans, and we are indebted to FIEDLER and SACHS (1849) for the first historical grammar of English. This was followed by the works of MAETZNER (1860-65), and KOCH (1863-69), which last includes the most thorough treatment of the language from the historical point of view that has yet been made, but it still awaits translation into English. It was an advantage for the historical study of English that, about the same time with the publication of GRIMM's Teutonic Grammar, a revival of Anglo-Saxon studies had begun in England under the leadership of KEMBLE and THORPE. The first impulse to the study of Anglo-Saxon since its extinction as a spoken language was given by Archbishop PARKER in the early part of the reign of Queen ELIZABETH. Its study was prosecuted by scholars of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and may be said to have culminated with the publication of HICKES's "Thesaurus of the

* In "The Academy" (London), of June 14 and 21 may be found a short translation in the Indo-European primitive speech (*Ursprache*).

Northern Languages," in the early part of the eighteenth century (1705). HICKES was the author of the first Anglo-Saxon Grammar (1689) since the time of ÆLFRIC, written in Latin, but a woman, Miss ELSTON, has the credit of having written the first in English a few years later (1715). The study of the language was, however, neglected during the last century and only resumed when the Rawlinsonian professorship at Oxford was inaugurated at the close of that century. The fruits of this restoration were soon seen in Professor INGRAM's edition of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (1823), followed immediately by Professor CONYBEARE's "Illustrations of Anglo-Saxon Poetry" (1826), but here, too, a woman may claim a share in the honor of advancing this study, for Miss GURNEY printed the first English translation of the Chronicle (1819), previous translations having been in Latin. Not alone, however, in England was renewed attention paid to the study of Anglo-Saxon, but a consciousness of common lineage and common traditions led the scholars of Denmark to apply themselves to the study of the language and literature, and we are indebted to THORKELIN for the first edition of "Beowulf" (1815), and to RASK for the first Anglo-Saxon Grammar (1817) since that of Miss ELSTON, which was translated into English by THORPE (1830), and long served its useful purpose. It would consume too much time to pursue in detail this revival of Anglo-Saxon studies in England by KEMBLE and THORPE, and its continuance by BOSWORTH and others, until we come to the well-known scholars of the present day, and the recent establishment of the professorship of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge, which is so worthily filled by Professor SKEAT. The study has been pursued to a much greater extent in Germany, and time would fail for even a passing allusion to all that has been done, but we may congratulate ourselves that owing to the labors of GREIN (1857-64), we have now easily accessible the whole body of Anglo-Saxon poetry, and the best glossary that has yet been published. Our own country also felt the movement and the study was inaugurated here, in the University of Virginia, by the influence of that far-seeing statesman, THOMAS JEFFERSON. It was continued by KLIPSTEIN (1848), and others, until its great development within the last twenty years, and its extension over the whole country, to which, without being invidious, I may say the greatest contribution has been made by the distinguished professor at Lafayette College.

Thus material has been furnished, and knowledge has been obtained of the oldest stage of English, which is the necessary pre-requisite to all historical study of the language. We must lay the foundation strong and deep by the thorough study of Anglo-Saxon before we can understand the historical development of our own language. It will then be possible to bridge over the transition period to CHAUCER inclusive, for we cannot spring at one leap from King ALFRED to CHAUCER, and we very much fear that the minds of the general public are still impervious to the beauties of CHAUCER. It is astonishing what erroneous ideas are prevalent with respect to the older periods of the language. We have heard of CHAUCER being called Anglo-Saxon, and the wish expressed that some one would put his works into "good English;" also of the idea prevailing that our Anglo-Saxon Gospels are not the language of ALFRED, which was supposed to be entirely lost. It is only within the last hundred years, since the

labors of TYRWHITT, that the knowledge of CHAUCER has been revived, and much more recently that any serious attention has been paid to the study of his works; and as to the transition period, before the publication of LAYAMON's Brut thirty years ago by Sir FREDERIC MADDEN, scarcely anything had been done for its elucidation. WHITE's *Ormulum* and MORTON's *Ancren Riwe* (*Anchoresses' Rule*), which soon followed, together with a few other books, furnished additional material, but much remained to be done, when the Early-English Text Society took up the work fifteen years ago. The publications of this society have first rendered possible a classification of Early English dialects, to which Drs. MORRIS and MURRAY have devoted themselves with success, and with the texts thus provided we can now trace the course of that dialect, the East-Midland, which superseded others as a literary language, and under the hands of such master-spirits as CHAUCER and his contemporaries developed into Modern English.

We are now, then, for the first time in a position to teach English historically. It is no wonder that it has not been done before. The necessary texts were lacking; the necessary labor had not been expended by scholars in working over the material accessible only to them, and putting it in a form suitable for instruction. In the progress of every science and art there must be leaders who will lay down the principles, and humble workers, but no less necessary co-laborers, who will embody these principles in a form suitable for popular comprehension. So it has been with each one of the Natural Sciences, so that they now hold a recognized position in the educational curriculum. So it is in some institutions, and must soon be in all that will keep themselves abreast of modern progress, in respect to the historical study of English. This method has been long since applied to German, not only by scholars, but in the course of instruction in the Gymnasias, so that it now forms an integral portion of that course. It has been of late years applied to French also, as witness the works of LITTRÉ, GASTON PARIS, and other eminent scholars, though to what extent it has been made a part of the course in the Lycées, we are not informed. It has, however, been used in the teaching of French in English schools, as the works of BRACHET, BREYMANN, and others, which are specially intended for school instruction, well show.* This method, then, is considered useful in the teaching of other languages, and it will be found equally as serviceable for our own. It is emphatically a modern method, but it is one which has been applied not only in the study of languages, but of the arts and sciences, of institutions, of beliefs. In aid of the investigation of these latter especially, the comparative method has been summoned, and with it the historical method goes hand in hand. In fact, the development of the doctrine of evolution, is but an application of the historical method. So far-reaching, then, in its applications, and so fruitful in its results, it is not strange that linguistic science also should have turned it to account, if, indeed, it did not originate it, and have derived much benefit from it. But it has not yet been made the most of in English, es-

* I notice in the Catalogue of the University of Wisconsin that the historical and comparative method is used in that institution in teaching French and German as well as English.

pecially from an educational point of view. Works suitable for teaching English historically are still needed, though a beginning has been made by Dr. MORRIS, in his books on historical English grammar, by Mr. KINGTON-OLIPHANT, in his "Old and Middle English," a most excellent work for teachers, and, in this country, by Professor CORSON, in his "Handbook of Anglo-Saxon and Early English." These works are very serviceable for the present, but there is room for others. The German grammars of English, already referred to, should be condensed and put in form suitable for teaching, or equally as good ones should be composed. A complete series of specimens, somewhat after the manner of MAETZNER's "Old English Extracts," well annotated and illustrating fully the historical continuity of the language, should be prepared. But with the best helps in the world, nothing can be effected unless an interest in the subject is felt by teachers and school authorities everywhere, and this interest can only be awakened by the dissemination of knowledge of the subject.

Many reasons might be urged for the universal adoption of *the historical method in the teaching of English*, and the chief of these is its promotion of a more thorough knowledge of the formation and structure of the language, and consequently greater facility in its use. This knowledge all will admit to be desirable, and the furnishing of it to come within the proper subjects of instruction in school and college. If we consider first the *vocabulary* of our language, we shall see the importance of this study. The direct Latin portion of the vocabulary can be readily distinguished, and more easily applied in practice, by a Latin scholar, and this furnishes one of the strongest arguments for the maintenance of instruction in Latin in our High Schools, academies and colleges. The Norman-French, or indirect Latin, portion is not so easily distinguished by a French scholar unless he happen to possess the rare qualification of a knowledge of Old French, although a knowledge of modern French cannot be dispensed with for this purpose. But the pure English portion, which one would suppose ought to be best known in its origin and history, is not at all explicable without a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. A knowledge of German will be of service here, but its relations to our tongue are too distant for explanation of the derivation of our Teutonic words, although one who knows German will learn Anglo-Saxon with much greater ease. While Anglo-Saxon, or Oldest English, serves as an indispensable basis for the prosecution of this study, we are apt to err if we do not go further and learn the intermediate stages of the language, which will thus have been greatly facilitated. Many of our words have changed their forms as well as their meaning, and a knowledge of the transition period is necessary to explain the connection between the older and the later forms.

When we come to consider the *grammar* of our language, we shall find the historical study even much more necessary than for the vocabulary. In fact, we fail to see how English grammar can be thoroughly understood and its inflexions and idioms explained without a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. It is almost useless to repeat what has been so often said, and is now the veriest commonplace, that all remnants of inflexion, almost all idiomatic phrases and relational words,—the link-words of the

language, such as all kinds of pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions,—all numerals, so-called irregular verbs, and most adverbs, are of pure Teutonic origin. Although the order of words has been changed, Anglo-Saxon grammar is interwoven with every expression of modern English thought, and necessarily so, because our present language is this Old English modified in the course of centuries by contact with Old Norse and Norman-French, as spoken languages, and later by the Latin of literature.

I cannot agree with some ardent Anglo-Saxon scholars that this modification has injured the language. On the contrary, I think that it has improved it vastly. It has increased its flexibility, enlarged its vocabulary, and furnished it with terms for the expression, in the clearest and simplest manner, of ideas on all subjects of human thought; so that there is no art, science, or philosophy, which cannot be as clearly and thoroughly discussed in English as in any language on the globe. The Norman conquest brought the English people and their language more fully within the scope of European civilization, and this contact enabled them to experience more deeply the effects of the development of that civilization, at the head of which the French stood for centuries. The subsequent introduction of terms of Latin origin strengthened rather than weakened the powers of expression of the language. I cannot think, as the Rev. Dr. BARNES and some others seem to imply, that the rejection of the Romanic portion of the language would contribute to its beauty or strength of expression. The chief loss which it has sustained from this external modification is in the power of composition, in which our language is inferior to both Greek and German, but it still retains considerable strength and facility in this respect, and this loss is not to be set against its gains in other respects. Of its two great elements the Teutonic is by far the most important, for without this it would be no longer English, but we are not willing to part with its Romanic element, and consider that, by reason of the fusion of these two elements, and of its close relations to both French and German, it is the better fitted for a world-speech, a position to which it is fast tending.

These admissions, to which some may, perhaps, take exception, do not make the historical study of the language less, but more necessary, for we must know thoroughly the Teutonic substructure and how it has been modified in the course of time. We must see at what points other influences have come in and to what extent the original language has been changed. For teachers especially, is this knowledge necessary, not only for those who will be called upon to teach English historically, but also for those who teach the ordinary English Grammar, which now forms a part of every course of instruction, both public and private. They will find new light thrown upon this study, and explanations of inflexional forms and of idioms will be ready to hand. It is now customary to insert in the school grammars Anglo-Saxon forms, and sometimes paradigms, but this seems to me like explaining the unknown by the more unknown, and useless for either teacher or pupil, unless the teacher will acquire a little practical knowledge of Anglo-Saxon so as to read common prose, which can be readily acquired by any one, and he will then see clearly the relations of words and forms, and will find this knowledge most use-

ful in his teaching, especially so if he will continue his studies even for a short time through the transition period. By the acquirement of this knowledge and the application of it in teaching, *philological study* will be furthered just as in the teaching of the classical languages. English can be made as useful a vehicle for imparting philological instruction as Latin or Greek, for tracing relations between words, the composition and derivation of words, their origin from roots and their relationship to cognate words in other Indo-European languages, and the germs and development of common English constructions. Indeed, it serves better to illustrate certain phonetic principles, which are of great importance in the history of all the Teutonic languages, but whose influence is not seen to such an extent in the classical languages. All the advantages which can be claimed for the study of language in general, can be claimed for the study of our own language in particular; and for the large number of persons whose linguistic instruction is limited to the vernacular, this must serve as the only medium by and through which philological knowledge can be imparted. Owing to the unfortunate tendency to restrict the teaching of the classical languages, and especially of Greek, if not to abolish it altogether in some schools, we need something to take its place, and nothing is so well fitted for this as the more thorough study of English. But this cannot be effected with the modern language alone, for the pupil will grope in the dark when the attempt is made to convey to him philological knowledge for which he has no previous preparation. He may open his eyes in amazement and endeavor to understand what appears to him as word-juggling, but he cannot assimilate the knowledge because he has no foundation on which to build. If, however, the teacher will adopt the historical method and endeavor to convey his instruction on this basis, not overtask the pupil's powers of reception and assimilation, but train the memory, the reasoning and the critical faculties to do their work gradually and efficiently, he will find, as the result, an interest in the study, a development of mind, and a much more thorough knowledge of the origin, history, and structure of our own language than he would have supposed possible without actual trial, for it would be a knowledge based on a natural and sure foundation.

It is possible to understand as far back as CHAUCER, say, on the basis of the present language, and to read his wonderful works intelligently and with enjoyment, but his language will not be *thoroughly* understood without further study. Professor CHILD, who, if any one, can speak with authority on this subject, suggests "the great convenience of a student being possessed of at least the Anglo-Saxon *inflections* before reading CHAUCER." "My own CHAUCER classes," he says, "have not that advantage, excepting a few individuals who choose to begin with Anglo-Saxon, and I find the want of an acquaintance with the original forms and inflections an obstacle, particularly as to the important matter of a rational understanding of the metre." This advantage will be appreciated by every one who knows Anglo-Saxon, and whoever undertakes to teach CHAUCER will find his labor lightened and simplified as regards an understanding of the language and metre, if he will first give his class an elementary knowledge of Anglo-Saxon. But for him who wishes to apply the his-

torical method more carefully, and to derive the greatest benefit from it, it is necessary to continue his studies through that difficult period in the history of the language when the Anglo-Saxon inflexions commenced to weaken and finally to disappear. He will find that this began earliest in the North under the influence of the Danish settlements and the incorporation of the Danes with the Angles as an integral portion of the English people. The South retained its old language longer, and strenuously resisted foreign influence. Even in the twelfth century, when the terminations began to weaken and the grammar to be sadly dislocated, we find the vocabulary still pure English, and it was late in the thirteenth century before we find an influx of many Norman-French words. The disintegration of the grammatical structure of the language went on, however, during this century, and by its close we find arising distinctly-marked literary dialects, each with peculiarities sufficient to determine approximately the locality of the writer using it. By the year 1300 it might have been a question whether the southern language of Robert of Gloucester, or the more northern of Robert of Brunne would furnish the prototype of modern literary English. A century afterwards, by the year 1400, ever memorable for the death of the "first finder of our fair language," it was no longer a question; for while the latter dialect contributed most to the standard English, it embraced also certain features of the former, and under the hands of the great writers of the fourteenth century, had taken on the form which, with comparatively slight modifications, was to remain for all time as the language of literature and of all educated English-speaking people. The understanding of these changes from the Anglo-Saxon of King ALFRED to the English of CHAUCER, can be made plain only by the study of specimens of the language itself in its various stages, learning the influences to which it was subjected, and tracing its development from century to century.

This is surely a worthy object of study and of teaching. Apart from the knowledge obtained and the philological training secured, the *literature* studied in such a course is not to be despised. It is customary to depreciate all English literature before CHAUCER, and to consider it as not worth the trouble of reading. But CHAUCER was the product of influences which had preceded him. He cannot be regarded as a comet suddenly shooting across the literary firmament. He was "primus inter pares," but there were others and chiefly LANGLAND, GOWER, and WYCLIFFE, who held no mean place in contemporary literature. He felt to a greater extent the influence of French, and especially of Italian writers, but his master mind made all his knowledge contribute to the enriching of his own tongue, and he could not rest content with being a mere imitator of others. He flourished, however, at the close of the period which we are considering; he was the culmination for a time of all preceding literary influences, and it becomes us to try to ascertain what these were which could produce such a result.

Love for our language and literature in itself, should inspire in every educated man a desire to know the beginning of literature in his own tongue. To know the Anglo-Saxon mind, of which the present English mind is but the outcome, we must study its products, and we shall find a

body of literature, especially of poetry, superior to that of any contemporary European people, and some of which will bear comparison with modern standards. The prose literature is not so valuable, but here we can see the early attempts at history,—in the latter portion of the chronicle character and events are painted with a right vigorous pencil,—the embodiment of law, showing the stern justice and the high appreciation of personal liberty which characterized our forefathers, and in the homilies, the expression of that religious spirit,—based on a knowledge of the gospels in the vernacular and so accessible to all who could read or hear,—which has ever been the heritage of English-speaking people.

We may trace the progress of literature from the Anglo-Saxon period on to the fourteenth century, and while we shall find it meagre and sometimes almost stifled, it never entirely disappears; but the English mind remains active through all the vicissitudes of external circumstances until it blooms forth in its own native strength and brilliancy.

To lead our pupils to take this survey, and to learn for themselves the development of our language and literature, is our part. Men, after leaving school and college, will not turn their attention to these subjects unless the impulse has been given earlier. To give this impulse and to lay the necessary foundation for this study is all that we can do, just as in the classical and the modern languages. No one hopes, in a school and college course, to do more than open the door to the treasures of classical and modern literature. Unfortunately it too frequently happens that the pupil permits the door to stand open and deliberately turns his back upon it. Perhaps he thinks that the appropriation of these treasures takes too much time and too much labor. But in our study it need not be so. We can give the necessary preparation in much less time than in these other studies, and when once given it is much more available for the prosecution of the study. I would then renew the plea made elsewhere * for the *historical teaching of English* in every school and college. Let the former arrange courses so far as time and place admit; if only back to CHAUCER, it will be a great gain, and teachers will be amply repaid. Such is the variety in our High-School courses of study, that each school must judge for itself how far it can pursue the study of the English language and literature. Only let it have some recognized position, even if something else must go to the wall, and however meagre the course, let it be taught thoroughly, and let the historical method be used as far as applicable. Above all let not the teacher be satisfied with knowing no more than the course requires, but let him pursue his own private studies in the same direction as far as possible, being confident that whatever knowledge he gains will inure to the benefit of his pupils.

But the college must go further and do more. It must elevate English to its natural position side by side with Latin, Greek, Mathematics, and

*In a paper on "The Study of the Anglo-Saxon Language and Literature," printed in the Proceedings of the National Educational Association for 1876, and in one on "Text-Books and Methods of Instruction in English," printed in the Virginia Educational Journal for December, 1878, and January, 1879, and in the Maryland School Journal for January and March, 1879.

the Sciences. Through the four years of the collegiate curriculum there is room for a full course in English, and a well-organized course should embrace instruction in each college class. There is room here to teach Anglo-Saxon, and time and place for it should be found in every college in the land. On its basis a thorough course in historical English should be reared, and pupils should understand that the teaching of English means something, and is not an ornamental appendage to the rest of the curriculum. When students realize that studying English requires work, just as studying Latin or Greek, and that it cannot be shoved aside into the odds and ends of time, and regarded as no great matter whether it is studied or not, they will have respect for it and take an interest in it. Any study that is too easy for a pupil will fail to receive its due proportion of time, and will fail also to develop the mental faculties, for they cannot be developed without continuous exercise. Moreover, if any study is not esteemed by collegiate authorities and put on a par with others both in the requirements for a mission and in the course of instruction, its honors and emoluments, it will be similarly regarded by the students and will naturally go by the board. If then we wish to secure efficient teaching of English, we must show that we esteem it as a regular branch of collegiate instruction, and require proficiency in it as in other branches for the attainment of collegiate honors. By applying the historical method in the teaching of English we can secure these several objects, and can train up a generation of scholars fitted to do the work still necessary to be done in the development of this study and in its extension, so that ere long there will be no college or university which will not have its chair of English, where the language of all periods will be taught well and thoroughly. By the use of this method alone, we believe, will this much wished-for consummation be attained.

This paper was discussed by Dr. FRANK TAYLOR, of Pennsylvania, HENRY E. SHEPHERD, of Maryland, Dr. JAS. A. PAXSON, the Rev. Dr. HAYS, EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., and Miss SARAH E. HUNTER, of Pennsylvania, Mrs. M. A. STONE, of Connecticut, and Dr. LEMUEL MOSS, of Indiana.

On motion of the Rev. A. L. WADE, of West Virginia, it was

Resolved, That the propriety of a Graduating System for Country Schools, be called to the attention of State Superintendents of Public Instruction, throughout the United States, for their consideration.

The names of the new officers of the Association were again read.

Adjourned to meet at the Centennial Building at 5 P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association met at 5 P. M. in the auditorium of the Main Centennial Building.

In the absence of President HANCOCK, the Secretary, W: D. HENKLE

called the Association to order and on motion of the Hon. JOHN EATON was directed to preside until Pres. HANCOCK arrived.

ZALMON RICHARDS, Chairman of the Committee on Necrology, made the following report:—

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY.

Your committee would respectfully report in part, and ask for further time to complete their report at the next annual meeting.

We feel grateful to our Heavenly Father, that he has shown such distinguished favor towards the officers and members of this Association, in the preservation of their lives. Very few have fallen.

As there has never been a report on the Necrology of this Association, we have no record to which we can refer for facts; and as the membership consists of persons from every part of our country, many of whom do not represent themselves regularly at our meetings, we are unable in the few hours allotted to us for a report, to ascertain the necessary facts.

Within the past year, one of the originators, and perhaps the first, to move in its organization, who met with us in this city twenty-two years ago, and read the first paper ever prepared for this Association—though prepared by Prof. Wm. RUSSELL—has died. We refer to T. W. VALENTINE.

Mr. VALENTINE was the firm friend of this Association, and did much towards giving it the high character it secured at the first, and has maintained ever since. His name has been prominent in the work of the American Institute of Instruction, and of the New-York Teachers' Association. He was always ready to give his whole influence to aid in giving character to the profession of teaching. He, himself, was an example of one of the best teachers, and died in the harness; struck down with scarcely a moment's warning, in the city of Brooklyn, N. Y. He was a man of a true heart, consistent character, and high culture. In his death the cause of education has lost a true and an able advocate and friend.

We regret also to record the death of one of our warmest friends in Miss HENRIETTA B. HAINES, of New-York City, who had made herself a Life Member of our body of Teachers. We hope to be able to add more particulars of her life, character, and death, hereafter.

We can hardly expect that our report will embrace no other names of our friends who have been called away from their earth-work.

Believing that this Association ought to preserve a record and memorial tribute of all its deceased members, we make this partial report, and commend that this Committee, or some other special committee be authorized to make further report at the next annual meeting.

Respectfully submitted,

Z. RICHARDS,
W. E. SHELDON,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
J. D. PHILBRICK.

Mr. RICHARDS requested those present to mention any deaths of mem-

bers that may be known to them and also to give any facts known to them in reference to the deceased.

W: E. SHELDON who assisted at the organization of the National Teachers' Association in 1857, paid a fitting tribute to T. W. VALENTINE, his co-laborer in that work.

Mrs. KRAUS-BOELTE, of New York, spoke in glowing terms of Miss HENRIETTA B. HAINES, and especially of her Missionary labors.

On motion of J. ORMOND WILSON, of the District of Columbia, the report was adopted by a standing vote, and the committee continued.

Remarks were made in reference to having the report on Necrology complete.

J. ORMOND WILSON, Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, reported back the resolutions of Prof. ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, and recommended their adoption. At the request of Mr. WILSON, Prof. HOGG read these resolutions with explanations.

PROF. HOGG'S RESOLUTIONS.

WHEREAS, The Congress of the United States, July 2, 1862, donated of the public domain 10,000,000 acres of land for the purpose of endowing and maintaining colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts in each State and Territory of the Union; and,

WHEREAS, These all have been inaugurated and are now in full operation, but with few exceptions are intended for the education of young men; therefore, be it

Resolved, That this Association re-indorse the resolutions adopted at Louisville, at its regular meeting, 1877, as follows:

"*Resolved*, That it is the sense of this Association that the general government should, at an early period, look to the feasibility of donating a portion of the public domain for the endowment and maintenance of at least one institution in each State and Territory for the higher education of women.

Resolved, That this Association appoint at this meeting a committee, whose duty it shall be to draft a suitable memorial to Congress, and to urge this distribution of the public lands for the purposes mentioned; " and,

Resolved, Further, that this Association endorse both the action of Congress, as expressed in House bill No. 2059, entitled "A bill donating lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the education of females" (introduced by the Hon. ROGER Q. MILLS, of Texas,) and also that of the Senate, as set forth in a resolution offered by Senator JOHN T. MORGAN, of Alabama, viz.:

"*Resolved*, That the committee on labor and education is instructed to inquire whether it is practical in the establishment and endowment of schools of science and technics in the several States and Territories, and in the District of Columbia, for the education of females in appropriate branches of science and the useful arts upon a plan similar in its principles to that of agricultural and mechanical colleges which have been

aided by the United States. That said committee have leave to report by bill or otherwise."

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed at this meeting to continue this work and to bring it more prominently before Congress and the people.

Mr. WILSON then read the remainder of the report as follows:

The Committee on Resolutions has to report the following:

That the members of the National Educational Association express their gratification at the recommendations in favor of education made by the President of the United States in his several messages—also at the action of Congress in appropriating a part of the increased sum which is needed for the more efficient working of the Bureau of Education. And they most earnestly recommend to Congress that a liberal appropriation be made for the special purpose of enlarging the pedagogical museum which has already been commenced in that Bureau.

That the thanks of the Association are due to the Railroad Companies that have given us facilities for travel at reduced rates, and to the Hotels that have made reductions from their usual terms:

That our thanks are cordially tendered to the Citizens and His Honor, the Mayor, and the Board of Education, of Philadelphia, for the hearty welcome extended to the Association, and for the measures adopted to secure their convenience and comfort while in session.

That we return our hearty thanks to the several local committees of Philadelphia—the Committee on Railroads, the Committee on Hotels, the Committee on the Place of Meeting, the Committee on Finances, the Committee on the Press, the Committee on Invitation and Reception, and the Joint Committee, for their energetic and successful efforts to promote the interests of the Association and the public.

That we return thanks to the ladies and gentlemen who so kindly furnished the Association with music.

That the thanks of the Association be given to the trustees of Public Institutions—Permanent Exhibition, Academy of the Fine Arts, Academy of the Natural Sciences, Franklin Institute, Teachers' Institute, Institution for the Blind, Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, University of Pennsylvania, Girard College, Wagner Free Institute of Science, Mercantile Library, Philadelphia Library, Pennsylvania Historical Society, United States Mint, Masonic Temple, Memorial Hall, School of Design for Women, American District Telegraph Company—that have kindly opened their doors to us during the week.

That our thanks are due and are hereby tendered to Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, the retiring President, for the ability, impartiality, and courtesy that have marked his conduct as the presiding officer of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,

J. ORMOND WILSON,
LEMUEL MOSS,
E. T. TAPPAN,
EDWARD DANFORTH,
W. E. SHELDON.

Committee on Resolutions.

The report was unanimously adopted, and ALEX. HOGG, College Station, Texas, J. D. PHILBRICK, Boston, Mass., W. H. PURNELL, Newark, Del., W. A. BELL, Indianapolis, Ind., and GUSTAVUS J. ORR, Atlanta, Ga., were appointed the committee ordered in the fifth resolution offered by Prof. Hogg.

The Secretary, still presiding, made an appeal for life memberships, etc., with the following results:

JOHN KRAUS, New York, N. Y. (\$18).

Mrs. MARIA KRAUS-BOELTE, New York, N. Y. (\$18).

W. E. SHELDON, Boston, Mass. (\$10).

NORMAN A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y. (\$18).

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Philadelphia, Pa. (\$18)*.

JOSEPH PAXSON, " " (\$20)*.

RACHEL G. FOSTER, " " (\$20)*.

LELIA A. PATRIDGE, " " (\$10)*, donation.

Those marked with a star paid at the meeting. Those who had previously paid \$2 for membership at the Philadelphia meeting were to pay \$18 additional to become life-members, and those who had been life-members on the old basis of \$10, become life-members on the new basis by paying \$10 additional.

On motion of W. F. PHELPS, it was ordered that all donations should be credited on life-memberships if the person making the donation should at any future time decide to become a life member.

W. F. PHELPS, J. HANCOCK, J. L. PICKARD, E. E. WHITE, G. P. BROWN, and W. A. BELL, each subscribed for 10 copies of the Volume of Philadelphia proceedings, and J. P. WICKERSHAM for 50 copies.

On motion the Association adjourned till its next annual meeting. Pending this motion, the Secretary called to the platform the retiring President, Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, who delivered a closing address.

Immediately after this address the meeting was turned over to the citizens of Philadelphia. Dr. J. A. PAXSON, President of the Permanent Exhibition, made a brief address, and called EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., to the chair.

Mr. SHIPPEN after making a brief address introduced Col. JOHN W. FORNEY, who spoke for a short time on the importance of the educational interests of the country.

Next Mr. SHIPPEN introduced HENRY W. BENTLEY, "a practical man and friend of EDISON," who proceeded to entertain the Association with the phonograph and EDISON's electric chemical telephone. His experiments were highly successful and were greatly enjoyed by all present.

Mr. SHIPPEN next introduced WALT WHITMAN, "New Jersey's favorite poet," who said he would make no speech.

The following persons were then called on for short speeches:—J. P. WICKERSHAM, JOHN EATON, ALEX. HOGG, J. L. PICKARD, Miss HELEN HOADLEY, of Tennessee, E. E. WHITE, W. E. SHELDON, and EDWARD MCPHERSON, "the representative of the Press in Philadelphia." All responded except Miss HOADLEY, who afterwards regretted that she did not speak.

As the meeting adjourned it was announced that the audience would be entertained by the performance of H. M. S. Pinafore by a company of children.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department of Higher Instruction met in the Laboratory on the first floor of the Girls' Normal-School Building, Philadelphia, at 3 o'clock P. M.

The President, ELI T. TAPPAN, LL. D., of Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio, called the department to order.

The Secretary being absent Prof. E. BENJ. BIERMAN, A. M., of Lebanon-Valley College, Annville, Pa., was elected Secretary.

The President made an explanation of what had been done by the Executive Committee in the way of preparation for this meeting.

CHARLES KENDALL ADAMS, LL. D., Professor of History in Michigan University, being absent, the President presented, and by request, read the Doctor's paper on

COLLEGE DORMITORIES.

The influence of College Dormitories in our system of education may be considered from two points of view. We may estimate their effect; first, upon our colleges as corporations; and secondly, upon students as individuals. It will serve our purpose to inquire into these different relations in their order.

I. Upon the welfare of the College.

A college cannot exist without students, it can hardly be said to be prosperous without a considerable number of students. To secure such an attendance, especially in the early history of an institution, dormitories may be an imperative necessity. Whether or not such necessity exists, depends, of course, upon the circumstance of each given location. The twelve or thirteen hundred students who annually seek the advantages of Harvard University, would probably find it difficult if not impossible to procure lodgings at reasonable rates were they dependent solely upon the vacant rooms offered by the citizens of Cambridge. President ELIOT remarked some years ago on this subject substantially, as follows:—"The question of dormitories or no dormitories is not an open one with us; dormitories are simply an imperative necessity." In other localities the same necessity, for the same or other reasons, may exist. Either the high prices of rents or the large number of students in proportion to the inhabitants of the college town may call upon the college authorities to furnish for their students the requisite accommodations.

Then, too, it may be urged that even where dormitories are not what may be called an imperative necessity, they are at least in some sense an element of power. They doubtless assist the institution in its effort to secure a hold upon public attention. They furnish an effective means of appeal to private generosity, for the reason that money contributed for a dormitory building assists at the same time the student and the college. Then there is still another consideration of weight. As human nature is, it is probably true that thousands of dollars may be secured for the erecting of imposing buildings bearing the name of the donor, where hundreds are wanting for the purchase of libraries and museums. It matters little that the most crying need of our colleges is an increase of the general fund for the defrayal of current expenses. Even generosity is not exempt from the weaknesses of human nature. The showy immortality offered by an imposing building with an imposing name is much more tempting than the sure and speedy oblivion of a bequest sunk in the general fund of the college treasury. The general fund may be, is indeed sure to be, the more important, but it is far less conspicuous. It is no very base characteristic of human nature that it desires to have its good deeds recognized and remembered. Such a recognition is afforded by a handsome structure, and even if the structure be erected at the expense of the donor's heirs rather than at his own expense, it still whispers the somewhat alluring promise of a permanent conspicuity and of a perpetual remembrance of good deeds.

It would be unjust to convey the impression that these motives violate essentially the predominant motives of the benefactor.

They simply have weight enough to determine the direction which generosity shall take. At most they are simply an additional incentive to incentives already nearly strong enough. Nor should it be inferred that no benefit is conveyed to the college treasury by the erection of dormitories. On the contrary, the general fund is increased by nearly the full amount of the rents to be collected from students. The sum of the whole matter, therefore, is, that while in other forms of benevolence the benefactor confers a benefit and soon loses the credit of his good deed, in this, he confers the benefit and preserves the credit. This last fact may not be regarded as important, but it is probably often of sufficient weight to secure bequests that otherwise would not be granted. There is, then, some force in the assertion that dormitories furnish an efficient means of appeal in behalf of colleges. If education consisted merely in good lodging-rooms for students, it is probable that ours would need to give us very little anxiety.

Another consideration of some weight in behalf of dormitories is the fact that the buildings help to impress the imagination of the people. It is probably true that the majority of people are ruled by their imaginations. We are not impressed by what things are, but by what they seem to us. It is certain that handsome school buildings are not without their inspiring influence upon the minds of children and adults. Children are beckoned on to the high school by a handsome high-school building. The same power is exerted to a certain extent by college buildings. Many a

boy has been inspired with a desire to secure a collegiate education by the effect upon his fancy of a view of the buildings of some college or university. Still further, it may even be said that many colleges lay stress upon pictures of buildings more or less accurate for the work of drawing students to themselves. We may think the device is an unworthy one, we may denounce it, we may sneer at it; but it still remains true that the imagination is powerful, and that all such devices are a tribute to its power.

Now take the country through, and sweep the dormitories away, how much would there be left of many of our colleges,—let us say to impose upon the imagination of either the wise or the foolish? Or, to put the question more fairly, if dormitories had never been erected, how much in the place of some of our colleges would there have been with which to impress the imaginations of our youth?

There is still another benefit to the college as a corporation derived from the system of dormitories.

It is in the fact that the life of the student who occupies a room in the college building is somewhat more closely identified with the college, and therefore, that his attachment to the institution after leaving it is somewhat stronger. How much weight is to be attached to this consideration it is not easy to determine, but it is, perhaps, not altogether without its importance. The student whose days and nights are literally spent in the college buildings, whose friendships and acquaintances are restricted nearly or quite to college companions, is quite likely to look back in after life to the days spent in college with peculiar interest and affection. The German student, it has often been noticed, acquires an affection for his teacher such as is seldom or never known in America, but he establishes no affection for the university as such. Students congregate from all parts of Germany to celebrate the anniversary of a favorite professor; but seldom to celebrate an event in the history of the university. The reason is that in Germany the professor is the real object of interest, while in America the object of interest is the college or university. Nor is this distinction a fact of small importance. Our colleges are dependent in very large measure upon the good will of their alumni; it is indispensably necessary therefore that the alumni should be ardently attached to the college. It is also to be noted that in a country like ours, where the professions are open to non-graduates as well as to those who have secured a degree, the tendency of our youth to secure a liberal education depends largely upon the representations of college life made by college graduates. It is even possible that the pranks of students with the traditions of which most college dormitories abound, have an inviting influence upon some who might otherwise feel a repugnance to the devotion required by a liberal education. If dormitories tend to strengthen a love for collegiate life, or to sweeten the remembrance of college days, their influence in this respect ought not to be overlooked or despised.

In the discussion thus far, I have considered the welfare of the college quite independently of the welfare of the student. There is a sense, it must be confessed, in which this separation of interests is quite unworthy of our consideration. *Can* a college have any prosperity apart from the

prosperity of its students? *Does it not seem pitiful*, that we should have to consider the means by which our colleges may *live*, and secure the attendance of students, when we ought to be considering merely how they shall *best instruct* the students who come to them? After all is it not unworthy of a college to ask any other question than this, How shall we best instruct those who seek our instruction? Surely the question ought not to be, How shall we make our students most warmly attached to ourselves? But rather, How shall we best train them for all the responsible duties of citizenship?

These questions bring us to the more important part of the subject.

II. The influence of College Dormitories upon the education and character of the individual student.

It is mere commonplace to say that all true education must be the result of individual effort. But while this is true it must be admitted that individual effort may be inspired or encouraged by companionship. If the constant association of students in considerable numbers tends to awaken or encourage a desire for higher attainments, we might at least *presume* that the companionship furnished by dormitories is helpful. But the experience of college officers will hardly justify this supposition. College students with us are accustomed to have definite tasks set before them, and their standing is made to depend largely or entirely upon the manner in which they perform those definite tasks. They have little incentive to do more. Where a working system prevails, there is an evident inducement before the student that he should not do more. It would manifestly tend to reduce his standing, were he to deplete his energies for his assigned work by applying them in other directions. The consequence is that when the lesson is prepared or the allotted task performed, the student seeks relaxation and recuperation for the similar task of to-morrow. But whatever the reason may be, the fact will not be disputed that whenever American students assemble elsewhere than in the class-room, their association tends to divert their attention from their studies, and does not tend to inspire them with greater scholastic zeal. It may not be easy to determine all the influences which make our students so unlike the students of Germany in this respect, but the fact is probably unquestionable, that they are unlike. It is safe to adopt this as an invariable maxim, that *all worthy acts performed by students are done by them acting individually, while all unworthy ones are done by them acting collectively*. Probably every college officer will admit that there are few things more disheartening to a teacher than the facility with which a crowd of rational students convert themselves into a mob. Experience shows that whenever a class, or a number of students from different classes, come together for a common purpose, especially if that purpose be the consideration of any imagined or real grievance of their own, there is no predicting the amount of folly and absurdity that will be committed. The crowd often, if not indeed generally, falls into the hands of the least wise and the least worthy, since it is these who are least under restraint. The most idle rumors are accepted as truths; and the wildest schemes are often the most acceptable. This is especially the tendency when any favorite member of a class or clique falls under the ban of the college

authorities. At such times the most reasonable members are apt to be silent or take but little part. The most defiant attitude toward the college authorities is too often deemed the only course worthy of the spirit and courage of manhood.

It will probably be conceded that the most difficult problems presenting themselves to a college faculty when acting as officers of government, arise from the necessity of dealing with students in masses. Separate even the most turbulent student from his fellows and you find that he is a rational being. Talk with him privately, and you discover no symptoms of insanity; you even find perhaps almost to your surprise that he is quite capable of exercising his reason. You may even convince him of the correctness of your own views. But let him go from your interview to a meeting of his companions. If he does not fall straightway from the grace of your instruction, he is at least likely to fall a prey to what is known as the harmony of the class. Whatever may be his individual opinions, he ceases for the time to be an individual, and becomes simply a fraction of an irresponsible body. If the meeting, whether it be formal or informal, falls under the influence of the best minds, it is likely to be regarded as spiritless and tame; if it falls under the control of the more turbulent elements, it is sure to exert its influence in favor of disorder. Hence it is that whenever good order for any reason in College is threatened, the worst consequences are generally to be expected from the meetings of students for consultation. It is always fortunate if such a meeting does not turn out to have been possessed with the devil.

Then, too, the results of such consultation are not only apt to be the worst possible, but the tyranny of the decision over those who dissent from it, is most relentless. The welfare of the college even among the most reasonable of students is, consciously or unconsciously, made subordinate to the harmony of the students with one another. As a matter of fact the best elements of the class seldom protest in any other than a private way, even when a vigorous and united protest would have been enough to defeat the action.

It is chiefly for these reasons that the consideration of questions of college policy by classes or even by groups of students is to be deprecated. This would not be the case were the college a republic, in which all would have a voice in determining what the government should be. But a college is not a republic and cannot be. Students have no voice in the choice of college officers and cannot have. The very fact that students seek instruction in a given college is evidence that the wisdom of those who give instruction is held to be superior to the wisdom of those who seek it. But even if in regard to some subordinate matters it were not, it would still be true that the college has the right to determine the conditions on which its instruction will be given. A college is not a monopoly. No student is obliged to attend college, much less any given student to attend any particular college. If he is not pleased with the conditions he may go elsewhere; but while he remains he is under every obligation to accept of the conditions established.

It is probable that these positions will generally be assented to as correct; and yet it is not easy to carry them out, or even secure their adop-

tion in entire good faith. We are so in the habit of sitting in a kind of authoritative judgment on the acts of all those in positions of responsibility and power, that it is difficult to exclude the habit of reckless criticism even from those relations where no criticism whatever, or at farthest, none but the most considerate criticism ought to be permitted.

But the tendency in college life has set powerfully in the other direction. Students everywhere are coming to have a very positive opinion on all questions of general interest. They grapple cheerfully with the most difficult problems; and they solve them with the most astounding facility. And this spirit is but another form of that audacity which Mr. LOWELL personified in his,

“ * * * * * shirt-sleeved aid,
Who, meeting Cæsar's self, would slap his back,
Call him 'Old Horse' and challenge to a drink.”

It will probably be conceded that these peculiarities of student life interfere to a greater or less extent with the success of our work of instruction. Is it not coming to be more and more obvious that throughout all the ranks of society there is too little respect for the power of regularly-established authority? Are we not as a people in constant danger of forgetting that devotion to liberty is no more requisite to civilization than allegiance to law? If the tendency is in this direction, it is the manifest duty of educators to do what they can to correct the evil. The remedy is not easy to prescribe, but if it is to be found anywhere, it is to be found in our family life and in our schools. Not only should there be the most wise and positive instruction on the subject, but every circumstance which tends to aggravate what is doubtless a great and a growing evil, ought to be carefully pruned away. That the evil is great probably no thoughtful person will deny, that the remedy is easy no one will assert. But there is abundant reason to believe that the intimate and peculiar association of large masses of students in college dormitories, tends to lawlessness, and *pro tanto*, to an aggravation of the evil of which we complain.

In 1852 when Dr. HENRY P. TAPPAN came to the University of Michigan as its president, a considerable portion of the students occupied dormitories. The authorities of the University were under the necessity of devoting a considerable portion of their time to the insignificant details of petty but annoying violations of order. It was believed that these annoyances would in great measure cease to exist if the students were to be separated and distributed into the various private families of the city. Accordingly the determination was soon reached to devote the dormitory buildings to other uses. Commodious rooms for the Library and Museum were thus secured, as well as increased facilities for the work of instruction. For a time some inconvenience is said to have been experienced by students, but the supply of rooms rapidly accommodated itself to the demand; and after one or two years no difficulty whatever was experienced. Even when the number of students came to be as many as eleven or twelve hundred they all found such accommodations as were requisite and without especial inconvenience.

It is perhaps only necessary to remark that the consequences of the

change have been highly gratifying to all the officers of the University. Good order has been less frequently disturbed and individuality on the part of students has been promoted. The change according to universal opinion has been favorable alike to good order and good scholarship.

The following discussion followed the reading of Dr. ADAMS's paper. President GEORGE P. HAYS of Washington and Jefferson College, Pennsylvania, said:—

The paper asserts what is my own experience. In the early history of Washington and Jefferson College the students seemed to regard the destruction of all college property as perfectly lawful provided they were not detected, and nothing, for a time, seemed safe save what was regarded as strictly private property. The introduction of rigorous measures by the college authorities corrected these evils partially, and yet the collection of a number of students into one building did then and will always bring with it some of the evils discussed in the paper.

My own experience however as a student outside is not very encouraging. The home influence in the family where I boarded was not strong. The lady of the house it is true gave attention to the many wants of the students but beyond that nothing was done, and the husband met us but seldom.

My experience and observations in theological seminaries also confirm what the paper asserts.

President LEMUEL MOSS of the Indiana State University, said:—I took my collegiate course in an institution where there are no dormitories. There are no dormitories where I am now and I know of nothing that could induce me to advocate the introduction of them.

Though prominent men differ from me I am persuaded that where young men and women meet each other daily in the recitation room and are at the same time subject to the elevating influences of a well-regulated family discipline is much easier. There is less of boorishness among the young men and a higher regard paid to all rules of propriety.

President E. T. JEFFERS of Westminster College, Pennsylvania, said:—The evils are not all on the side of the dormitory system. As asserted in the Doctor's excellent paper to some institutions they are a necessary evil. My experience as a student in a theological seminary is favorable to the dormitory system. There seems to grow out of it a stronger attachment to the institution. During a recent conversation on the subject with a Rhode-Island college professor he gave his experience as entirely favorable to dormitories. I think, however, that the paper expresses the sentiment of most educators.

Professor EDMUND J. JAMES of Normal University, Illinois, said:—My experience is more extensive as a student than as teacher and in in-

stitutions where no dormitories were. There seems, however, from all I can learn as much if not more clannishness among the students of Michigan University where the dormitory system was abandoned years ago as there is anywhere else. I fully agree with Dr. JEFFERS that a certain kind of attachment grows out of the dormitory system which is not found elsewhere. Yet if an institution can do without them she does better.

President Moss of Indiana, asked :—Is the attachment stronger? Who will elucidate? Among the students of Rochester University where I was graduated, the attachment almost partakes of the nature of a mania, and yet we had no dormitories in the institution.

President J. L. PICKARD of Iowa State University, Iowa, said :—If the dormitory system can be conducted without the espionage that is usually connected with it, it is good. I was connected with an institution as trustee and instructor for nearly twenty years and the dormitory system became only a success after a most excellent woman became matron who took a special interest in each individual boarder, spoke of the students as her boys and thus introduced the soul element—the family system. I was a student under the dormitory system and was not properly treated until I became a senior. The greatest disorder prevailed in the boarding-hall and yet the President of the institution who lived in the building had no trouble because he did not care. Men would send their sons to this place because they felt sure that their sons were under the constant care of some responsible person. I do not think my friend Doctor HAYS was neglected if his room was swept and his bed made but I claim that some one ought to have cared for me. For the last year I have been where there are no dormitories and the people take an interest in the students and if they do not their daughters will. There is no antagonism between the people of the town and the students where there are no dormitories. I want the family system in a school and above all let us feel that under any system we want the home element cultivated.

President HAYS of Washington and Jefferson College, Pennsylvania, said :—My former remarks were in the line of President PICKARD's and my own experience I suppose was against it. The family or social element will wield a remarkable influence on the student. By distributing a number of students among the families of a town they will become more identified with the school.

On motion the President appointed GEO. P. HAYS of Pennsylvania, E. T. JEFFERS of Pennsylvania, and J. L. PICKARD of Iowa, a committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year.

On motion of JAS. M. GARNETT of St. John's College, Maryland, the Department adjourned to meet to-morrow at 3½ o'clock P. M.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30, 1879.

The Department met at the same place at 3½ P. M. Dr. TAPPAN occupied the chair. Prof. FRANCIS A. MARCH, LL. D., of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., read the following paper on

ORTHOGRAPHY IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

In none of our schools is the orthographic position more embarrassing than in our High Schools and Colleges. It is generally taken for granted that collegians have learned to spell; but every one who sees their written exercises knows how far this is from the fact.

Conscientious teachers are greatly troubled by this state of things. Much stress is laid on perfect spelling as a sign of a thoroughly-educated person, and professors often feel as though they have not done their duty by a graduate who cannot spell. They think sometimes that they ought to keep up the methods of the primary schools, and hold spelling classes and spelling matches; and have frequent examinations of the whole college in this art of arts.

Most of us, however, settle down in the conviction that there is no time for such methods, and that they would not accomplish the result aimed at. A student who has come to collegiate years a bad speller will never learn the 120,000 spelling problems which the English dictionary contains. The attempt would be sheer loss of time and patience. It is to be remembered further that while there are so many thousand words in the language, each person's own vocabulary is made up of comparatively few, perhaps 3000 or 4000, possibly no more than a few hundreds. And a grown man in real life is practically a good speller if he spells the words of his own vocabulary correctly. If he have occasion now and then to use strange words, he can look them up when he uses them.

From this point of view it would seem, that the common method of teaching spelling in High Schools and Colleges is substantially scientific and sufficient. This method is the correction of the mistakes in spelling which each student makes in the themes and other written papers which he prepares in connection with his studies.

If the misspelt words are simply checked in each paper, and the student required to hand in the paper a second time with the corrections made, every attentive student will learn and correct his own habitual mistakes.

To this the professor may add an occasional exposure to the whole class of the most frequent and most absurd of the blunders to which members of the class are prone.

If to this be added an examination at the close of each term, not on spelling in general, not on the recondite puzzles of the dictionary, but on the very words which have been misspelt in the essays of the term, a reasonable amount of attention will have been paid to orthography in its narrower sense, *i. e.*, the art of spelling English according to the dictionary and spelling-book.

The science of orthography is, however, well worthy of more extended study in college, and is every way fitted to excite interest and develop important thought, and lead to valuable practical applications. It treats of the representation of spoken language by visible signs, and includes a systematic history of such signs, and a discussion of the principles according to which they should be made and used.

The student of this science will learn about picture-writing first, and how pictures are abbreviated to what we call letters; then the principles of alphabetic writing, of which some of the most important are that a perfect alphabet must have one character and only one for each elementary sound; and that all considerations connected with the embodying of history and giving beauty of form are of little consequence in comparison with phonetic convenience.

He will be taught the history of the English alphabet. The Anglo-Saxon speech was reduced to writing in Roman letters by the missionaries who converted the people to christianity. The letters were used in their Roman values, and new letters were added for the sounds of *a* in *fat*, *th* in *thin*, *dh*, *i. e.*, *th* in *thine*, and *w*. After the Norman conquest, when the Normans and Saxons fused into English, a large part of the words of each race were difficult for the other race to pronounce. Scholars inclined to spell in the old book fashion, but many undertook to represent the corrupt pronunciation, often by ill-conceived combinations of letters. The Normans gave up the special Anglo-Saxon characters. Then followed a change in the whole gamut, so to speak, of the vowel sounds. The close vowels changed under the accent into diphthongs by taking an *a* sound before them. The old *i* as in *machine* has thus changed to *ai*, as in *mine*; *u*, as in *rule*, has given rise to *au*, as in *house*. The open and mixed vowels have become closer: *a*, as in *far*, changing to *a* (*i. e.*, *e*) in *fate* or *wall*, or to *o* in *home* (A-S. *hām*); *e* as in *they*, changing to *e* (*i. e.*, *i*) in *me*; *o* as in *foe*, changing to *oo* (*i. e.*, *u*) as in *moon* (A-S. *mōna*). Single characters have thus come to stand for diphthongs, and the long and short sounds, which go in pairs in other languages, are denoted in ours by different characters, and come from different sources. Intermediate between the old *a* (*far*) and *e* (*met*) has become established *a* in *fat*, *fare*; between *a* (*far*) and *o* (*note*), *o* in *not* and *nor*; and the sounds of *u* in *but*, *burn*, have also arisen. All these have no special signs. Five consonants *sh*, *zh*, *th*, *dh*, *ng*, are in the same condition.

Meantime printing was introduced with a force of Dutch printers, who set up from the manuscripts, as best they could, the same word being printed often with many different spellings on the same page. But the necessities of the great printing-houses gradually led to uniform habits, and these at last received the stamp of authority from Dr. Johnson's Dictionary.

The people have long since ceased to feel any necessity for keeping sounds and signs together. Changes go on without any record in the writing; etymologists slip in new silent letters, on the ground of imaginary derivations; old monsters, fertile in the popular fancy, propagate themselves in the congenial environment; and, altogether, we have at-

tained the worst alphabetic spelling in the world. For the history of all these changes, see ELLIS's *History of English Pronunciation* (London, 1867); SWEET's *History of English Sounds* (London, 1874); HALDEMAN's *Analytic Orthography* (Philadelphia, 1858); MARCH's *Anglo-Saxon Grammar* (New York, 1870).

The students who have been made acquainted with such facts and laws may be continually interested in the application of them to the spelling of particular words. I take it for granted that they will study the Anglo-Saxon language and the great English classics, SHAKESPEARE, CHAUCER, CADMON, BEOWULF, according to the methods of philological study which have within the last ten years become almost universal in our higher schools of learning.

They will notice as they study these early English classics, the emergence of the prodigies of spelling, and learn their history and the causes which produce them; for sheer blunder has its causes always, just as truly as the fittest products of reason, and the exposition of man's blunders goes far toward his total history. They will observe and study, for example, the first appearance of *l* in *could*, of *s* in *island*, of *w* in *whole*, of *c* in *scent*, of *r* in *bridegroom*, of *b* in *limb*, *thumb*, *crumb*, of *ue* in *tongue*. They may pry into the *eig* of *sovereign* or *foreign*, or into all the mystery of *delight*, *righteous*, *shamefaced*, *women*, or the freaks of *accede*, *proceed*, *precede*, *exceed*, and the like. They may study the obscure vowel sound before *r* as in *sir*, *her*, *burr*, *myrrh*, *earth*, where we seem to have filled in with any letter that occurred to us; we use *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, or *y* with delightful impartiality; *friar*, *speaker*, *nadir*, *actor*, *sulphur*, *zephyr* run from our pens with equal ease. There are ten thousand words containing this puzzle, and no man has ever mastered them all. The scholar looking for rules among them might think himself sure that names of personal agents from English verbs end in *er*, like *defender*, *feeder*, *lover*, but he would go amiss in *beggar*, *liar*, *sailor*, etc. The Greeklings think they are on firm ground in writing *y* for Greek *υ*, as *zephyr* from *ζέφυρος*, but how about *butter* and *βούτυρον*, Latin *butyr-um*, *purse* and *βύρσα*, Latin *byrsa*.

Then there are the doubled consonants, all the time wrong for the sound,* and half the time for the etymology. We all see the point when the Rt. Hon. ROBERT LOWE, formerly Minister of Education in England, challenged the House of Commons that not half a dozen members could spell off-hand the word "unparalleled."

Such studies as these have a twofold advantage. In the first place the curious observation of these queer blunders serves to fix them well in mind, so that we learn to spell well in the old way.

Then they dispel the sacred character which has too much surrounded the standard spelling. They induce a reasonable judgment in favor of the amendment of our spelling, so as to make it simple, regular, and reasonable, according to the principles of the science of orthography.

Students thoroughly taught will find it easy to follow the fashion of the day among the scholars, and appear as Spelling Reformers.

* There is a handful of words with "held" or half-doubled consonants, like *n* in *meanness*.

This paper was listened to with marked attention and was briefly discussed by President HAYS of Pennsylvania and Dr. GREENE of Massachusetts.

Dr. HAYS of the committee on the nomination of officers for this department for the ensuing year made the following report which was unanimously adopted:—

President—ELI T. TAPPAN, LL. D., Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio.

Vice-President—LEMUEL MOSS, D. D., Indiana State University, Bloomington, Ind.

Secretary—E. BENJ. BIERMAN, A. M., Lebanon-Valley College, Annville, Pennsylvania.

These gentlemen were also according to custom duly constituted the Executive Committee to lay out the work for the ensuing year.

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department was called to order by the President, W. F. PHELPS, of Minnesota, who made a brief address.

PROFESSOR PHELPS'S ADDRESS.

After a vacation of two years we have again assembled to consider some important questions relating to the preparation of teachers for their important work. In common with the other higher departments of our public system of instruction, the Normal Schools have during the past two years been the objects of severe criticism, and exposed to the dangers of hostile legislation. The "popular sovereigns" who awake on some January morning to find themselves so far famous as to be members of the Legislature, are, unfortunately not all statesmen. They must justify the people's choice by *doing something* and so they fall upon the expedient of tinkering the school laws. For does not everybody know all about education! But quite as unfortunately, the people themselves are not always able to discern clearly those things which make for the welfare and glory of the country in the management of public affairs.

There is good reason for the conviction that the vital relations which education sustains to the general welfare and happiness is yet very inadequately appreciated, and that many truths deemed of prime importance in the early days of the republic are becoming in the minds of the people little less than stale platitudes. It is for these reasons, coupled with the financial stringency of the times, the greed of gain and the hostility to public education in many cases, that unfriendly criticism and hostile action have been directed to our Normal and High Schools.

Thus the opposition to both classes of schools has in many respects a common origin and a common spirit. There are not a few educated and influential men, who, while professing to believe in the necessity of elementary schools for the masses of the people, are yet opposed to the Normal and High Schools, without which there is no possibility even of thorough elementary instruction. If we could have training schools for the preparation of some of our governors and legislators in the elements of statesmanship, they would meet a great want and prove a blessing to

many who attempt to manage the affairs of a free people without understanding the business!

But with all the popular ignorance of the details of education there is yet in the public mind a degree of hard common sense which enables the people to discover that our Normal Schools do not come up to their requirements in the direction of *professional training*, but that they are duplicating the work of the graded and higher schools merely. Let the training schools and their directors appreciate this fact and let them bring the schools back to their true sphere and the opposition will cease and be succeeded by a cordial and hearty support. The topics to be discussed at the present session have a direct bearing upon the special sphere of professional instruction. They have been selected with this end in view and it is to be hoped that they will serve to emphasize the thought just enunciated.

J. C. GILCHRIST, Principal of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, Iowa, then read the following paper on

PROFESSIONAL DEGREES FOR TEACHERS.

The human mind, by its constitutional nature, reverences knowledge and learning. Consequently, the people have always paid respect to the learned, not to the men as men, but to learning and skill which they were supposed to possess. One of the strongest incentives in all ages to acquire knowledge is the ambition to secure the distinction ever awaiting the true scholar. Out of this principle academic degrees arose. They were a necessity of the exigencies of society, and have existed so long that it is difficult to trace their origin to any single founder or any single act. Indications of their existence can be found in the history of all ages. The possession of a title was useful to the masses in order that they might bestow their respect discriminatively. The scholars themselves would find in a title, both as to honors and emoluments, security against pretenders.

Degrees serve two purposes or functions. The first purpose is to give evidence that the possessor of the degree has certain attainments in scholarship and skill which are attested by some college or university upon the result of an examination conducted by its faculty. This is the ordinary degree. Of the same class is the honorary degree, the difference being that, in the latter case, the college or university attests the scholarship and proficiency of the party concerned on the strength of his common fame. The second purpose is to give evidence that the holder of the degree has the necessary qualifications for the practice of some profession or art, attested by some college or university on the result of an examination.

The importance of the profession of teaching needs no commendation or defence before such a body as this. Yet I am not sure that even this body of Normal-School teachers fully comprehends the potential magnitude of our profession. The cause of education, as a philosophy, now in its infancy and demanding growth; as a system of legislation, now incoherent and faulty; as a policy, now so capricious and often disastrous in

administration ; as a force in the civilization of the age, now so inefficient compared with its potentiality, is in the hands of the teachers. Who else would become the explorers and exponents of this interest ? The world expects them to sustain, to advance, and to cherish it. And it is a matter of pride that the teachers of America, indeed the teachers of the world are not indifferent to it. Look at this great assembly of instructors, who for twenty-one years have devoted themselves to the advancement of education in all its departments. Look at the American Institute of Instruction, and the Teachers' Association of nearly every State in the Union. These all mean individual improvement, concentration of influence on vital issues of the hour, broader views and more penetrating analysis of educational philosophy. The teachers have been devoted, self-denying, and earnest in behalf of their cause to a degree not exceeded by other professions. But, all along, it is plain the teachers have been laboring under many and heavy difficulties. Obstacles are in their way, hard to surmount ; restraints that greatly impede their progress ; disabilities that weigh heavily upon the mind and heart. Generally, the profession is not permitted to regulate its own customs, methods and procedures. As a public servant, the teacher is exposed to criticism by all classes, thinking and unthinking, qualified and unqualified. He is constantly subjected to humiliating examinations, even after years of experience, distinguished success, and the endorsement of the highest authorities. The best wages are grossly disproportionate to the necessary preparation for the vocation, the anxieties connected with its labors, the amount of work to be done, and the value of its results. The precarious tenure of employment, the want of a standard of eligibility ; the absence of prerogatives, honors, or securities ; isolation from the world, and the limitations of the teacher's chances for promotion, are evils against which he must contend.

The depression of the teacher is the depression of the interest of education, which is the interest of humanity. The encouragement of the profession, the placing it on a broader and surer foundation, is an enterprise that concerns, not the teacher alone, but the entire people. Now, we believe that a well-devised and well-administered system of professional degrees will do great good. Degrees, adapted as they are to satisfy the common mind have done much for other professions and certainly can do as much for us. They are highly prized to-day by the ministerial, medical, and legal professions. They know their value. Abolish the degrees and these professions would at once experience a loss of influence, which would be serious to their interests, perhaps disastrous. Give such degrees to us, and the decisive benefits, which the other professions enjoy, would soon be secured to us.

1. A system of professional degrees will make teachers prominent in society as a learned class. This result has attended their use in the past. In the middle ages academical degrees assumed great importance because they elevated the scholars of the times above the extreme rudeness of society prevailing in Western Europe. The prestige of degrees which we all recognize in this country, was not less influential in Rome, when her young men went to Athens to bring back academical honors. In short, the great men of all civilized countries—orators, statesmen, scientists, and

divines, have appreciated degrees conferred by the schools because they distinguished these men and enlarged their influence over society.

2. A wise system of degrees securing some privileges and emoluments, will prove a strong incentive in obtaining professional qualifications. At present, the rewards and attractions of the profession are certainly few. Invest it with more liberal privileges than our day allows; encourage it by multiplying chances for preferment; secure the entrance thereto against the inroads of incompetency and empiricism; give it the safeguards of stability and competency; open the doors of the civil service of the government and to distinction everywhere; place the successful teacher on a plane with our orators, our literati, and our military men; then shall we see untiring exertions put forth by hundreds to gain eminence in the pedagogical ranks.

3. A system of degrees for the teacher will induce a more perfect development of educational philosophy and pedagogical practice. To the love that many teachers now have for their calling there will be added the inspiration of ambition and the patience of investigation, because when the mind brings forth its discoveries and lays them before the world, there will be a reasonable ground for expecting appreciation and not the fear of derision and neglect. The teachers' profession is the basis of all professions and as a distinct philosophy is slowly ascending in the thought of the world; yet it greatly needs the impetus that an army of thinkers can give. Educational Science is now in its infancy. Our professional literature is meagre in quantity and quality compared with that of other professions; but we are perfectly aware that its boundaries are far-reaching though undetermined; and its plains rich and fertile though unexplored. They will be, they must be searched out; and the teacher will yet arise as an intrepid explorer, who will lead his forces into the wild domain and subject it to system and cultivation. Who will come to this work if not the teacher? Let the race be announced, the prizes prepared, and the contestants encouraged.

4. A system of degrees will soon remove or mitigate the evils depressing the profession. This statement is perhaps a corollary, easily deducible from the previous propositions and arguments, but I wish to set it off by itself. It is clear that competition of persons not admitted to the fraternity will be stopped; that useless and annoying examinations will cease; that the precarious tenure of position will disappear and more permanency will be secured; that the passiveness of the teacher in the administration of school affairs will give way to a recognition of his experience, counsel, and skill; and his isolation from public affairs will be exchanged for active participation therein.

The practical elements of this theme remain for discussion.

1. What shall the degrees be? Nothing seems so appropriate as the titles, *Doctor* and *Master*, for, as you are all aware, the word *doctor*, in keeping with its Latin derivation, was originally used to signify a teacher; and up to the twelfth century, we are told, it was the designation of a teacher, even in the universities; but finally came to designate a degree or rank in the learned hierarchy. I am in favor of retaining the title notwithstanding its appropriation by other parties. We can not afford to take

the English word *teacher*, for, to get the full advantage of a title, it must gratify the common mind by containing the grace and mysticism of a foreign derivation. Similar statements can be made for the word *master*. But how can we, by the use of degrees, get a clear separation of teaching from other professions by which these degrees have been appropriated? This can be done by some accompanying word of appropriate signification whose initial letter will differ from that of any word now in use for such a purpose. Such a word is Instruction or Education. Some might prefer Pedagogy. Didactics is excluded, for an obvious reason—its initial letter is now in use. You are aware that professional degrees for teachers do not obtain in our country, indeed not in any country, as far as I know. The Normal Schools of Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, and Pennsylvania are the only schools of the United States that give degrees. Iowa proposes to give a degree to graduates of the four-years' course, but, as her one normal school has existed only three years, no classes in that course have been graduated. There is no uniformity among the schools that do give degrees. Kansas State Normal Schools confer the degrees of "Bachelor of the Elements," and "Bachelor of Didactics." I am not sure but North-Missouri Normal School at Kirksville gives "Bachelor of Elementary Didactics," "Bachelor of Arts and Didactics," and also a post-graduate degree of "Master of Arts and Professional Teacher." Warrensburg, Missouri, confers the degree of "Bachelor of Scientific Didactics" on the graduates of the full course. The Normal Department of the State University of Missouri confers "Principal of Pedagogics," "Bachelor of Pedagogics," and "Master of Pedagogics." Nebraska Normal School grants the degree of "Normal Graduate." The Pennsylvania State Normal Schools give the degree of "Bachelor of the Elements," "Bachelor of the Sciences," and "Bachelor of the Classics;" also the post-graduate degrees of "Master of the Elements," "Master of the Sciences," and "Master of the Classics." Uniformity may not exist among all the Normal Schools of Pennsylvania. I understand that the use of degrees in this State is satisfactory. Full graduates of the State Normal School of Tennessee, at Nashville, receive the degree of "Licentiate of Instruction."

2. What degrees shall be given and who shall receive them?

In considering this subject, I propose that the fraternity be divided into three classes. First, the fresh graduates of our Normal Schools, who are prepared, in the main, for the schools of elementary instruction, including the country and graded schools. These persons might receive the lowest degree, which, I venture to suggest, may be Licentiate of Instruction (L. In.) The second class might be composed of graduates of Normal Schools and Colleges who have taught successfully say five years, and hold important positions in schools for secondary instruction, as our Public High Schools, Preparatory Schools, and Academies; also superintendencies. These might receive the next higher degree, Master of Instruction (M. In.) The third class might be regarded as composed of prominent educators, having served in the profession for at least ten years and hold positions in institutions for superior instruction, as scientific and technical schools, colleges, universities, normal and other professional

schools and schools of special instruction. These might receive the highest degree, Doctor of Instruction (D. In.) In this class should be included Superintendents of large cities and Superintendents of Public Instruction. The present prevailing degrees would, of course, be additionally conferred upon presidents of colleges, principals, chancellors, deans, and the highest educational executives. Around these degrees and the granting of them should be erected suitable limitations, securities and safeguards so that they can not be abused.

3. What privileges should a degree confer ?

First, all persons having a degree should be authorized by their diploma to teach in their respective States, and by courtesy in other States, without subsequent examinations. When they seek a higher degree than that which they have, possibly another examination should be held. What the character of this examination should be is an important consideration.

Graduates of Normal Schools are authorized to teach without further examination in Alabama, California—the new Constitution of that State may change this feature—Kansas, Maryland, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont, and West Virginia. In Indiana they are so authorized on receiving diplomas, which are granted after two years' successful teaching, certificates being given at graduation. In Rhode Island "local committees may waive examinations." In Wisconsin, the graduates of the two-years' course, after one year's successful teaching, their diplomas being countersigned by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, are authorized to teach for five years, but the diplomas for the full course of four years, under similar procedure, becomes a permanent certificate. In Minnesota diplomas formerly possessed a legal value, as a five-years' certificate, renewable at the end of that time on examination by the Principal of the Normal School; but this feature was repealed. So far as I know, in all other States, graduates of Normal Schools are not authorized to teach by virtue of their graduation. This is wrong. It is oppression on that most worthy class, our Normal graduates; a suppression of all ambition and an incubus upon all inspiration. Let us abolish it. I was pleased to find an opinion against this injurious practice of ever-recurring examinations expressed by Dr. McCosh but a few days ago. I could give the names of other great men who look upon it as pernicious.

4. Who should grant professional degrees to teachers ?

I can go no further than to say that faculties of Normal Schools founded by State authority should be competent to grant degrees to the students of the same. It is evident that there should exist uniformity of degrees among the Normal Schools of the United States, and in the manner of granting them. It is no doubt well that the public-school authorities, the Superintendents of Public Instruction, or their deputies, and County Superintendents, should join the faculties in the final examination. But this is not enough. State Committees, acting in unison under the general instruction of a National Committee, should grant the higher degrees already indicated. Whether or not there should be formal examinations, I will not venture an opinion before this body. There is one principle that should be recognized as self-evident, *the members of the profession*

should determine who shall be admitted to it. The practice of other professions in this particular, should be the practice of our profession. On this we should rest. Let the professional teachers of the country manage their own business and let the law sanction their transactions.

It has come to be understood in all the great centres of activity and thought that the teacher is the chief force in the educational system. The selection of this theme, Professional Degrees for Teachers by the President of this Section, seems to be very opportune. In this progress of educational efforts prevailing in other countries it has become prominent. Prof. MICKLEJOHN, Professor of the Theory, History, and Practice of Education in the University of St. Andrews, Scotland, is engaged in earnest effort "to make teaching a learned profession into which there shall be a difficult and discriminating entrance, and in which there shall be a career after the teacher has entered it." A chair of Education has also been established in the University of Edinburgh. The University of Cambridge has taken an important step toward a similar professorship. At the next session of Parliament a bill will be presented for the organization of the work of teaching and the workers. Movements in the same direction are found in France and Germany. The United States are not lagging in this race. Initiatory steps in some of our universities and colleges have been taken for the founding of chairs of Pedagogy and Didactics. Such a chair has existed for several years in Iowa State University. The University of Michigan has very recently established a chair of Didactics. The conviction is becoming deeper in the American mind that Education is an important science, but that it needs cultivation; that pedagogy is a profession of great breadth, but that its growth is awaiting friendly aid. This movement of the public mind is destined to effect great results.

In conclusion, I beg leave to suggest that this branch of the National Educational Association choose a committee of five to prepare a plan for Professional Degrees for Teachers in the United States, and regulations for the granting of the same, and report at the next meeting of this body.

An animated discussion followed the reading of this paper.

DISCUSSION OF MR. GILCHRIST'S PAPER.

Professor Brooks, of the Millersville Normal School, of Pennsylvania, said that there had been a time in which he was in favor of degrees for teachers, but his enthusiasm was not now so great; he was doubtful in how far the conferring of degrees might remove the difficulties and dangers of the profession; he was, however, upon the whole, in favor of them. All arguments advanced for the giving of degrees in any profession hold here. Our Normal Schools do not, however, seem to be in a position to bestow degrees that would really confer honor, and inferior degrees would tend to degrade rather than to elevate.

W. N. BARRINGER, of Newark, N. J., said he desired to use all methods calculated to make entrance into the profession easy and *safe*. It is hard

to get rid of incompetent teachers. The question must be asked, How did they get into the profession? We cannot be too particular about requirements for entrance.

Commissioner EATON, at this point, called the attention of the Department to the report of Dr. DA MOTTA, of Brazil, Minister of Public Instruction in that country, on the Normal Schools of the United States. The work, published in two volumes, contained an account of the location and economy of our Normal Schools, together with courses of study, and copies of examination-papers from the St. Louis and other Normal Schools. Dr. DA MOTTA was anxious that his work should meet the approval of American educators.

J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, stated that he had received a similar letter from the Brazilian Minister of Education, together with a copy of his book, with reference to whose value he desired the opinion of American normal workers.

The original discussion being resumed, Dr. MAYO, of Springfield, Mass., said that the value of degrees was in inverse proportion to the ease with which they were obtained. In his own profession nothing was easier to obtain than the title D. D. Teachers themselves are not free from blame for the present position of the profession. Comparatively few attend meetings of this kind; they do not defend their own system. A new educational system has developed itself in the last twenty years, of which many persons are ignorant; out of their ignorance grows opposition to the schools. Let the teachers properly represent their profession, and they will convince these people.

Miss GRACE C. BIBB, of the University of Missouri, spoke of the degrees conferred in the Normal Department of that institution, and explained that these degrees were contemplated in the courses of instruction: an elementary degree, given upon completion of a two-years' course, designed to prepare for the common schools of the State; a degree given as supplementary to a full academic course, and now involving a year of professional training in addition to the work required for the degree in one of the four academic courses of science, arts, letters, or philosophy. A third, of extremely difficult acquisition, very rarely bestowed, and implying extraordinary scholarship and ability. These degrees are respectively, Principal, Bachelor, Master in Pedagogics,—as stated by the essayist.

Prof. JOHN MICKLEBOROUGH, principal of the Cincinnati Normal School, said it was not evident to his mind that the mere conferring of degrees would, as had been suggested, add to the length of the teacher's tenure of office; this benefit, as well as others hoped for, could only follow the giving of degrees worthy to be honored. If degrees are given, they must mean something.

Professor PHELPS, President of the Department, said that in his opinion an adjustment of all these vexed questions would be reached with the progress of the profession.

Mr. T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, of West Virginia, said that this, like most other questions, might easily be carried to extremes; in avoiding Scylla, we fall into Charybdis. While there are innumerable applicants for positions in cities, in many country places the teacher has to be sought. Many of those teachers securing positions do not do satisfactory work,—there are many evils to be remedied. There is danger from too many Normal Schools as well as from too few; from too high a standard as well as from one too low. We need a deeper professional training, rather than wider literary culture. The belief of the speaker was that professional degrees will aid in bringing about proper professional zeal. West Virginia, in addition to the States named, confers the degree of Normal Graduate, but this is not considered of much importance. Persons can teach well in the primary schools when professionally trained for it by experience or normal drill, without possessing the literary qualifications necessary for the degree of A. M., or even of A. B., and it is folly to expect that any large number of our primary teachers can possess these acquirements. The speaker then went on to suggest the degrees which might with propriety be given in recognition of superior qualifications.

The President announced EDWARD BROOKS, of Pennsylvania, J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa, and GRACE C. BIBB, of Missouri, as committee on Nomination of Officers.

Adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30, 1879.

The President called the Department to order, and after a statement that the absence of persons who had promised to read papers compelled a change of programme, Prof. LEWIS McLOUTH, of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti, Mich., proceeded to read the following paper, entitled

A CONTRIBUTION TO THE QUESTION OF PROFESSIONAL INSTRUCTION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Mr. President :

There is a science underlying every art. Out of fixed, underlying principles every art grows, and becomes an expression of those principles. Art grows *unconsciously* out of these principles; because they do not become manifest till expressed in art. *Consciously*, on the other hand, science grows out of art. As WHEWELL says, "The principles which Art Involves, Science Evolves." Art, at last, when perfected, becomes conscious of these correlated principles, and thereby is able to work *rationally*, to foresee results, and to select and attain those that are desired.

For the perfect practice of an art then,—the highest and best practice,—

there must be two kinds of knowledge: A knowledge of processes and a knowledge of the principles or laws that underlie and control these processes. For practical purposes the first,—knowledge of processes,—is most important; though for the highest exemplification of art both are necessary.

These truths apply in *all* human arts and occupations,—in agriculture, carpentry, stock-breeding, and all the other humbler pursuits; they apply to law, to statesmanship, and to the fine arts; *to teaching as an art and as a science they also apply.*

Now, however, it may be for the humbler callings, at least for all the higher pursuits of men,—such as we denominate the professions,—for the practice of law and medicine and music and oratory, as well as for teaching, two kinds of preparation are needed: A *general* and a *special* preparation. The general preparation is the general development and discipline of the powers for the sake of character and culture. The special preparation is to give skill in the processes of the particular art to be cultivated, and knowledge of the scientific principles that fundamentally control and give form to those processes.

The general preparation is, or may be, mostly the same for all the professions; the special preparation must be as varied as the different professions themselves. The general preparation,—i. e., character and culture,—is given by the general schools of all grades and by all educating agencies. The work of making the special preparation itself, even, is an educating agent, and so more or less contributes to the general preparation; but conversely the work of general education contributes little directly to special preparation. This special preparation has been made in the past by apprenticeship under special masters of the different arts or professions, more lately in technical and professional schools. Schools of medicine, of music, of agriculture, of engineering, of law, and of theology have thus been founded; and so Normal Schools have been established presumably to furnish necessary *special* training to those who elect to follow the calling of teacher.

But, although the art of teaching is perhaps the oldest of all arts, and although it is one of the most difficult as well as important of all, still its correlated science has not been yet very fully elaborated. Teachers have mostly done their work empirically,—have, so to speak, worked by “the rule o’ thumb.” Zeal, honesty, and general intelligence,—those qualifications that are regarded as constituting only the *general* preparation for the other professions,—have been thought sufficient for the work of teaching. So teaching has not yet been generally recognized as a profession. So Normal Schools have been standing on uncertain ground, not quite knowing their own function, and by many not being recognized as having any.

When the educational tide-wave ran high, when the people were prosperous, or thought themselves so, Normal Schools, public and private, were established in great numbers, often by men who hardly knew their own purposes, except in a vague and general way.

In the newer States sometimes local emulation has been the chief ex-

citing cause. If one town is selected as the seat of a prospective State University, another must have the Normal School, and still another gets the State Prison. If, indeed, there are several ambitious and influential towns, there may be several Normal Schools. But after a time comes a revulsion. Debts, both municipal and private, that were easily contracted are not so easily paid. Business languishes; rich men become poor; extravagance retrenches. Taxes are high and hard to collect; wages and prices are low. Men question and scrutinize every private and public expenditure. Then the Normal Schools do not escape. Their nondescript function, and the uncertain ground on which they stand have generally made them, among public educational institutions, the first to receive attack. Governors have pronounced against them in their messages; legislative committees have reported adversely, or have been compelled to make labored defence, and educators themselves have not always refrained from questioning their right to be. Such has been and is the opposition that some have been closed, many have been compelled to continue under greatly shortened sail, while all have been anxiously looking about for safer moorings.

Now the opponents of the Normal Schools, neglecting the large class who are actuated by parsimony alone, may be divided into two classes:—

First—Those who,—often among teachers themselves,—deny or ignore a science of teaching. These are they who believe that the only qualifications a teacher needs are academical knowledge and a good character; and that skill comes only and wholly by practice. There are many teachers who tacitly take this view and a few who openly avow it. Their own skill, whatever it is, they have acquired by practice, and without previous special training. They have learned the trade by trial, and have never studied or analyzed their own methods of procedure. Not believing in any but a general preparation for the work of teaching, they, of course, do not see the need of Normal Schools. This class also includes many in other professions, who are influential, and who in most matters are intelligent, but who have never given this matter any attentive study. Many such find their way into the State legislatures, and if they do not oppose the Normal Schools, support them only in a kind of tolerant way, because of their general faith in *all* educational means and measures, and because of their general desire to favor everything bearing the name of school.

The *second* class of opponents is composed of those who, while they believe in the need of special professional training for teachers, do not believe the Normal Schools are generally doing so exclusively as they should the kind of work for which they conceive these schools to have been established. Looking over Normal-School courses of study, and finding at most not more than ten per cent of their work such as bears directly upon the special training of teachers, while the other nine-tenths are directed towards general academical acquirements,—to the teaching of language, literature, and science,—they fail to see sufficient distinctive difference between the Normal Schools and good high schools and academies, to justify the existence of the former. Believing thoroughly in scholastic attainments as a preparation for the teacher's work, they yet believe in

another—a more special preparation. The general preparation,—the general scholarship,—they believe should be given by the general schools, the academies, high schools, and colleges: and if the Normal Schools can find nothing else to do, why then, in the opinion of these persons, there is no need of Normal Schools. And to these objectors the old answer, so often given, that high schools are yet so few in number and the work they do so poor, that Normal Schools must for the present be chiefly engaged in academical instruction, is by no means satisfactory. Once that answer may have been conclusive; but now it is not, with a high school on every hill-top, and many of them as richly endowed as the Normal Schools themselves with apparatus, libraries, and skilled teachers.

These men are the most dangerous, though not the most numerous enemies of the Normal Schools; but they are not so much enemies to Normal Schools as enemies to *the* Normal Schools.

Now the Michigan State Normal has been constituted about the same as the other Normal Schools, and has tried to do about the same kind of work. It has been in operation about twenty-five years, and has felt the opposition of both the classes of critics above described. The one has denied her right to exist at all, and the other has denied her right to exist as she is or has been. They have said: Twenty or thirty years ago, when the State was comparatively young and sparsely inhabited, and when good schools were very few, it was well to have one State high school where teachers and others could get a good academical education; but now there are scores of good high schools, scattered all over the State, well equipped and well manned, and supported by local taxation. The Normal School they have said, must either be closed as a State school, or else confine herself to the legitimate and peculiar function of affording to teachers the *special* preparation they need, and the special preparation it is the function of no other school in the State to give.

Now, although the opposition to this school did not threaten immediate destruction, still it seemed to be growing, and especially among men who are usually considered the warmest friends of education, and whose opinions upon educational matters ought to have most weight. This, and some other considerations, eighteen months ago induced the governing Board of the School, the State Board of Education, to inquire whether considerable changes in the courses of study were not needed in order to readjust the school to its changed surroundings. A committee of their own number was accordingly appointed to study the subject. The members of the faculty of the School were asked to give their views in full. All the chief educational men of the State, and many in other parts of the country, were consulted. Quite elaborate discussions were in some cases presented, and the views of many of our best teachers obtained. These opinions with an unexpected unanimity, pointed in *one* direction. As a result the committee of the Board reported in favor of a considerable change in the plan of the school with the purpose of making it more distinctively professional in character. The change recommended was adopted, and has been called with rather unnecessary ostentation, a "*New Departure*."

The following paragraphs from the report of this committee are given,

before going more into details, as presenting in general terms a fair idea of the new basis of work.

"The committee recommend, 1st, Enlarging the School of Observation and Practice so as to constitute a graded school representing all the departments of our best schools, including the high school; and that students applying for admission to the Normal School, deficient in academic preparation, be allowed to make such preparation in the School of Observation and Practice. 2nd, This School of Observation and Practice to be under the supervision of the Principal of that School with two skilled assistants, but the teaching to be done by Normal students under the direction and inspection of the respective professors of the Normal School. 3d, To establish in the Normal School proper three courses of study, of one year each—the Common-School Course, the Higher English Course, and the Language Course,—for fitting teachers respectively for the lower and the higher grades of our common and graded schools. 4th, Aside from general reviews in connection with the professional instruction, the Normal School proper is to be confined to professional instruction."

This plan, as will be seen, implied two distinctive changes from the former courses, and from the courses commonly pursued by most of the Normal Schools. The changes are, 1st, a complete separation of the academical from the professional work of the school, the entire relegation of the former to the School of Observation and Practice, and the restriction of the Normal School proper to the work of professional instruction; and, 2nd, the endeavor to do all the work of general instruction by means of the Normal pupil-teachers under the supervision of the regular Normal School-teachers, each supervising the work in his own department.

The Normal-School courses proper need fuller explanation. They are all one-year courses and are *purely professional*:

I. The Common-School course is intended to fit teachers for work in the rural schools and for the lower grades of the graded schools. Before a pupil can enter this course he must have a thorough knowledge of Practical Arithmetic, English Grammar, Local Geography, Orthography, Reading, History of the United States, Elements of Physiology, of Vocal Music, and of Drawing, and Elementary Algebra.

The course of study itself consists of, 1st, a course of daily lectures running through twenty weeks, upon the Elementary Principles of Education and their psychological and physiological basis,—tempered to the capabilities of pupils who are mostly young, and who have only common-school attainments;—2d, a twenty-week course of daily lectures upon School Organization and Government, School Laws, History of Education, and Methods of Reading and Study;—3d, a daily exercise in practice teaching for forty weeks;—4th, a course of twenty weeks in the *special* methods of teaching reading, orthography, English grammar, and composition. This course in special methods, besides affording an opportunity for a rapid review of the studies themselves, is devoted to such work as the discussion and illustration of the sequence of topics, and the best order of presentation, the comparative value of different topics and the special method of presenting them, the methods applicable to different grades of pupils, the educational and the economic value of the particular study,

the elucidation of difficult points, methods of preparing lessons, modes of conducting the recitation, what qualities make up a good text-book, the handling and movements of classes,—referring all points, so far as possible, to underlying educational principles and maxims. These and many other points that easily suggest themselves to all experienced and thoughtful teachers, fill up pretty fully the courses in special methods;—5th, a similar course of fifteen weeks in Arithmetic and Elementary Algebra;—6th, a similar course of fifteen weeks in Local Geography and United States History;—7th, a similar course of twenty weeks in vocal music and drawing,—a little more than the *pro rata* time being given to these studies, both to aid the more general introduction of these branches into the public school, and on account of a common deficiency of preparation;—8th, a course of fifteen weeks in objective teaching,—botany, zoölogy, and elementary physics, being the topics;—9th, a course of five weeks in human physiology and hygiene, in which, besides methods of teaching, attention is given to modes of lighting, heating, and ventilating school-rooms, proper posture of pupils, length of work hours for pupils of different ages, physical exercises, care of the eyes, and other important matters of school hygiene.

This course—the Common-School Course—altogether, provides, upon the average, about four and one half exercises per day for the school year of forty weeks. It is not, and is not intended to be, so heavy as to prevent pupils from engaging in some general reading and other voluntary literary work. An able pupil may indeed carry the work of this course and still have time to make up in the School of Observation and Practice some deficiencies in his academical preparation.

On the completion of this course the pupil is licensed to teach in the lower grades of the public graded schools, and in the rural ungraded schools of the State for the period of three years. On certain conditions this license may then be renewed for another equal period.

II. The Higher English Course requires for admission, in addition to the demands for the Common-School Course, a good knowledge of the following branches of study:—A course equal to that of our best High Schools is understood;—Higher Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Book-keeping, English Composition, Rhetoric, English Literature, General History, Mental Science, Botany, Zoölogy, Physical Geography, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Civil Government, Geology, Astronomy.

Equivalents for any of these branches, or of those required for admission to the Course of Languages will be accepted, at the discretion of the Faculty, and students will be required to pursue those studies only in the Advanced Professional Courses for which preparation was required for admission.

The course itself is made up as follows:—1st, a course of daily lectures for forty weeks upon the Science of Education,—a fuller discussion of principles than in the preceding course;—2d, twenty weeks upon the history of education, school laws, school organization, and school government;—3d, a daily exercise for forty weeks in practice-teaching under supervision;—the pupils in this course do the work of teaching the English studies of the higher classes in the School of Observation and

Practice;—4th, a course of thirty weeks in the special methods of teaching such elementary branches as reading, penmanship, arithmetic, spelling, geography, vocal music, and drawing, similar to the corresponding course described above for the Common-School pupils;—5th, a like course of fifteen weeks in grammar, composition, rhetoric, and kindred branches;—6th, a course of fifteen weeks devoted to a like end for some of the more advanced mathematical studies;—7th, a similar course of twenty-five weeks devoted to the natural and the physical sciences, and a course in school hygiene like the one before described.

This course also furnishes upon an average about four and a half daily exercises, and upon its completion the pupil is given an unlimited license to teach the English branches in any of the public schools of the State.

III. The last of these professional courses is designated the Language Course, and like the others it is one year in extent. It is designed to fit those who complete it for any place in the public schools of the State. The minimum conditions of admission are the same in English branches as for the Higher English Course, and, in addition, about as much Latin and Greek as is required for admission to college. An equal amount of French and German will be accepted as an equivalent for Latin and Greek.

The studies of this course are about the same as the Higher English Course, except that one exercise per day for thirty weeks is given to Latin and Greek, or to French and German, or to any two of these languages, in place of a corresponding amount in the higher English studies. In all cases, however, the pupil must attend to the professional work in the primary branches.

An additional elective course has recently been provided for persons who have had considerable experience in teaching in the higher grades of our public schools, and who desire to increase their preparation for teaching special branches. These may select and pursue, subject to the approval of the Faculty, any six studies in the Professional Courses.

Applicants for admission to these elective courses will be examined only in the Primary-School studies and in those branches which they intend to pursue. Satisfactory evidence of having taught successfully the Primary-School studies will be accepted in place of examination.

Such, briefly and imperfectly described, are the professional courses of study of the Michigan State Normal School; and such, in still more general terms, is the new plan of work upon which the school entered at the beginning of the last academical year. As has been stated, the distinctive features by which it is marked are a complete separation of the academical from the professional work, and the relegation of the former to the School of Observation and Practice; while the Normal School proper is confined to professional instruction. The academical instruction is all done by pupil-teachers under supervision, and is done solely for the sake of practice teaching; although many take incidental advantage of these classes to make, or to complete, their preparation for the Normal Courses.

Now before deciding to enter upon this plan two obstacles to success clearly presented themselves,—or rather two unsettled questions of para-

mount importance which nothing but experience can ever answer. The first is:—Do teachers, or those intending to become teachers, sufficiently recognize their need of special, technical training in preparation for their work, to spend their time and their money in attendance at a school where this is the sole or the chief kind of instruction offered? The second question is:—Can pupil-teaching be made so good that the pupils taught shall suffer no harm, or so that pupils can be found to fill the classes?

The first of these obstacles seemed the greater one;—the first of these unsettled questions seemed the more difficult to answer. As long as many teachers hold that accurate general scholarship, zeal for the work, and tact to control, are the only qualifications the teacher needs, it is not surprising if those young people who propose to become teachers shall often be found entertaining the same opinion. But it was thought that sentiment upon this point is at least slowly changing for the better, and that educators and educated people are becoming more and more apostles and missionaries of the faith, that as a man must have special training before he can be trusted to shoe a horse or to tune a piano, so he needs special training, certainly as much, who undertakes the task of leading and instructing children and youth; and it was further believed that if Normal Schools would both preach and practice this faith,—the only faith, indeed, that gives them the right to exist, the people would all the sooner arrive at correct convictions.

The experience of the Michigan State Normal School during the past year does not throw any certain light upon this question. The pupils of that school usually come to believe, after a time at least, that there is a science and an art of education, and that one to become a good teacher must make these the objects of special study; but whether they are first attracted to the school by its professional or its academical instruction is not in many cases certain. Probably they come with only the indefinite purpose of making themselves in some way better teachers. The past year's trial has been too brief for definite conclusions; furthermore, although the changes in the course of study were industriously advertised, there was not time enough before the opening of the year for the people to become generally informed. A very few pupils who were in school the year before and who knew the change was going to take place, have not returned, and their absence is said by rumor to be on account of the change, but no one knows of a certainty. It is possible that some who were attending the school for its academical instruction have been lost.

The attendance during the past year has been in the professional courses, 104, of whom 84 were graduated; and in the School of Observation and Practice, 439. Many of the latter, though, were carrying some professional studies.

This summary shows a slight decrease of attendance as compared with the preceding year; but the diminution can, in part at least, be traced to other causes. It can only be known after a longer experience whether the time has fully come when teachers are convinced of their need of special training. It may, however, be said that the experience of the school in question, during the past year, is, in this direction, not without promise.

The pure, professional courses very generally approved themselves to the students pursuing them. They became convinced that there were enough matters of special importance to them as teachers to fill up a year pretty full of earnest labor.

One matter that is working against the school is the fact that there is not now in the State any adequate system of examination and supervision outside of the larger towns. The standard of qualification for teachers, especially in the country, is very low. If competent examiners were in the habit of requiring for a license some special knowledge of the art and the science of teaching, in addition to good character and scholarship, the success of the present plan of instruction in the Normal School would be assured beyond a doubt.

In regard to the other obstacle to the new plan,—the question of pupil-teaching,—it is believed the experience of the school during the past year, and indeed during many previous years, justifies the belief that *it may be made a success.*

For many years, indeed from the organization of the school, there has been a training or practice-school department covering the usual primary and intermediate grades. The classes in this department have nearly always been taught by pupil-teachers; and this work has often been done in the past by these inexperienced teachers without adequate supervision and assistance from the regular teachers of the school, who were occupied all the time in giving academical instruction to their own advanced classes. The pupil-teaching has consequently, in the past years, been often very poorly done; and yet there has never been any lack of pupils to fill up these classes in the school of practice. People in the city withheld or withdrew their children from the free public schools, and sent them into the classes of the pupil-teachers where tuition fees were charged. With the improvement that now comes from a more constant and a more systematic supervision there is no reasonable doubt these lower classes will continue full.

In regard to the practicability of extending this work of pupil-teaching to the higher grades, to all the grades, indeed, of a high school, there is naturally more doubt. Many think this cannot be done; possibly it cannot be. Those people who believe in precedent more than in progress, those who think what has never been done never can and never ought to be done, those who have great talent for sitting still and croaking at those who disturb the quiet by moving about,—and there are a few such in Michigan,—loudly pronounced the experiment a failure before it began; these noisily-expressed predictions of disaster added needless impediments to the trial. Classes in the higher branches, they said, ought never and would never submit to being taught by mere practice-teachers. And yet the Normal School had for years at each graduation day been sending out a large number of young men and women who never had had any experience in any but primary instruction, as licensed to enter the public schools and teach Geometry and Chemistry and Latin and German and other advanced studies. It naturally occurred to some that if these persons, two months after graduation, without experience and without the aid and advice and supervision of a skilled teacher, and often without the

necessary books and apparatus, were still competent to teach these branches, they might possibly two months *before* graduation be able to teach them reasonably well, with the help and counsel and constant oversight of experienced instructors, and in a school well equipped with all material aids. Moreover it would seem that what the school certified her pupils as able to do she ought to know they are able to do, and that by the certain knowledge of actual trial. In the Normal School, pupil-teachers cannot make mistakes either in matter or manner without speedy detection and correction; in their own actual schools, after graduation, and when alone, they may continue to blunder for years. Furthermore there was no very obvious justice in allowing young and inexperienced teachers to practice upon *little* children more than upon *larger* ones. If it was good in one case, it might be good in the other; if bad in one case, it would be bad in both.

For several years, previous to the last, tentative experiments had been made in the school, more and more each year, in the matter of practice-teaching in the higher branches. Pupils have often been put in charge of classes for a single day, or for a week, or for a term, and their work in all its bearings carefully scrutinized. These experiments were nearly always reasonably successful; and this gave hope that this work might with profit be greatly enlarged.

And now during the past year a very large part of the academical instruction in *all* grades has been given by pupil-teachers, and for the most part with a success hardly anticipated. *With proper supervision this work can be made a success, and in every sense profitable.*

There is no difference of opinion as to the value of properly-directed practice-teaching to the practice-teacher himself,—this is one of his best means of preparation; the only question is:—can it also be made profitable to the pupil taught? Those discussing this question pretty generally agree that if the instruction given by the pupil-teacher can by careful supervision be made as good as the average instruction in the public school of corresponding grades, it may be safely and freely employed for all classes in Normal Schools as a means of training teachers for their work.

In the Normal School of Michigan during the past year a great many classes have been thus taught in German and French, in the various branches of mathematics up to and including trigonometry, in Latin and in Greek, in Botany, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and Physiology, and in nearly all cases the instruction has been very good, the order in classes without fault and the interest and progress of the pupils excellent. So far as the writer knows not a single case of insubordination occurred, and the instances of discontent or of disaffection were not more frequent or more serious than occur yearly toward regular teachers. Better instruction is indeed seldom witnessed than was given during the past year by some of the pupil-teachers in German, French, Geometry, Algebra, Chemistry, Physics, and Physiology. These branches are especially mentioned because of the writer's accidental opportunity of observing them; and the opinion is confidently expressed that there are very few high schools in the State where the work was as well done. At any rate it is entirely safe to say that if the pupils taught in this way had been left to their own local

high schools, very many of them would not have been so well instructed. There was this advantage in the case, it is true, that nearly all who were in the professional courses and who consequently constituted the teaching corps, had taught before, many of them in the lower grades of the School of Observation and Practice, and many in the public schools; but this advantage will doubtless continue, for the greater part of those who resort to the Normal School have previously had some experience as teachers. On the contrary a disadvantage, of no small extent, arose from the plan being a new one, and from its being impossible to devise a system of assignment of the work that would fit in all respects unforeseen conditions. A second though temporary disadvantage came from the fact that, as many of the pupils of the school had made considerable advancement in the old mixed courses before the adoption of the new plan, it was necessary to conform somewhat to their circumstances. This difficulty, however, will disappear as the school is gradually adjusted to the new scheme.

Some things, of course, have been learned from the year's experiences. These things will be presented from the writer's personal stand-point, although in most of them he believes his co-laborers of the schools will generally agree with him :

First, Pupil-teaching is worth less to the pupil-teacher as well as to the pupil taught, unless very carefully and very constantly supervised by skilful teachers. With that supervision it is of immense value to the practice-teacher, and not unprofitable to the pupils taught.

Second, This supervision must be so close that the supervising teacher shall be half the time, or at least, one-third, except possibly in the lower grades, present during the work of teaching. Generally he cannot supervise properly more than three classes at once.

Third, The pupil-teachers, except for marked inefficiency, should have charge of their classes for at least a term of ten weeks; more frequent changes are harmful to both teachers and pupils.

Fourth, A careful and wise discrimination must be made in assigning the work to the pupil-teachers,—a discrimination that shall consider their fitness and their aptitude for the different grades and studies.

Fifth, The plan must provide a means by which the supervising teachers can meet their pupil-teachers at regular and frequent intervals for counsel and for marking out and giving directions for their work.

Sixth, The pupil-teachers must be made to feel that the classes are their own, and that they are to be held to a close accountability for the order in recitations and for the progress made; while, at the same time, the classes must know that they are to be held to an implicit loyalty to their immediate teachers.

Seventh, The right of appeal from the decision of a pupil-teacher in matters of examination or discipline, etc., must not be denied the pupil; and yet the supervising teacher must in this particular exercise the utmost care and discretion.

These conditions complied with, the writer believes that practice-teaching in all grades and in all studies may be very safely and very generally used by the Normal Schools as one of the most profitable means of giving to their pupils practical training for their future work;—a training that

theoretical teaching can in no manner reach, and a training of indisputable necessity. The young teacher must get this first practice either unaided and alone in his own school, or else—far better—under the eye and with the aid of one who can show him the dangers that impend before he meets them, the errors that are near him before he commits them.

The writer cannot perhaps so well present his views of what pupil-teaching can and should be made as by giving a little more detailed description of work that has been actually done. This he will undertake, though at the risk of being tedious.

Chemistry, in the courses of the School of Observation and Practice of the Michigan Normal School, is in the twelfth or highest grade; the pupils pursuing it are from sixteen to twenty-five years of age, and the time devoted to the study is thirty weeks. The instruction, so far as possible, is made objective and experimental.

This work during the last year for a class of forty pupils was done by pupil-teaching. This expression, however, does not mean simply sending some young and inexperienced people to practice and to blunder; but it means something quite different and certainly very much more laborious for the supervising teachers. The pupil-teachers had studied chemistry, of course, before,—some in previous classes in the Normal School, some in the State Agricultural College and some in the public high schools. They were not, as under the circumstances they could not be, selected because of any particular fondness or aptitude for the study; and some were compelled to teach in this class those who were their own classmates in other branches.

These pupil-teachers were met once a week, or oftener if needful, by the teacher in charge, and the work for the week examined and assigned; cloudy points were cleared up; the best order and the best manner of presenting the topics discussed; the parts that were to be emphasized pointed out; the extent of the daily lessons was determined, and cautions pointing towards any pertinent though outlying questions which inquisitive members of the class might ask, and for which the pupil-teacher should be ready, were given; the apparatus was prepared, and all experiments which were to be made were gone over and repeated by the pupil-teachers until every one felt sure of his hand. Then one of the number was assigned to the work of teaching the class for a week, one was appointed to assist at the experiments and the rest to act as observers and critics. Then the class came in and the pupil-teacher took up his work. At the next meeting another portion of the work was looked over in the same way, new assignments were made and a critical, though good-natured, review of the past week was given, and suggestions and criticisms heard from the observers. This constituted the *professional* work in chemistry for this class of pupil-teachers.

In this particular case as the trial was a new one, the teacher in charge was present at nearly every recitation, ready to assist, as might seem necessary, in case any unexpected points were raised for which the pupil-teacher might not be instantly prepared. Under the light of this experience the writer believes that two classes, instead of one, could have been

simultaneously supervised with entire success, and thus twice as much opportunity given for practice-teaching.

The result was: The work was well done, few of the writer's own classes having ever shown better interest or made more satisfactory acquisitions. To the pupil-teachers themselves the work was unquestionably of very great value. Some of them are already engaged to teach next year in the public high schools of the State; and if there are any branches which they can teach well, it will certainly be those they have taught in this way in the Normal School.

Of course in a large school with such a complex organization, it is difficult to arrange programmes of daily work so as to fit and entirely accommodate all pupils and all departments; but bearing in mind that the scheme does not recognize the need of every pupil-teacher having practice in every branch, or indeed, in every department, it is believed that experience and study can speedily remove or greatly reduce this difficulty.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, the writer fears this account of what the Normal School of Michigan is endeavoring to do is very unsatisfactory and incomplete; and the considerations he has presented, in the hurry of a too-rapid preparation, are not so clearly expressed as they ought to be, not so clearly even as they lie in his own mind;—but he dare not risk further intrusion upon your time by any additional attempts at elucidation.

Allow him, though, in conclusion, to express the very confident conviction, with which, too, he hopes and believes that many of you are in harmony, that if the Normal Schools of the country ever reach, as he believes they will, a surer and an unquestioned footing in the public-school systems, it must be by their taking up the exclusive work of affording that special and peculiar preparation the teacher needs, and which it is the province of no other school to give. In the present civilized economy there is, year by year, a closer and more sharply-defined division of labor, and it is by means of this division of labor that civilization advances. The farmer no longer makes his own tools, grinds his own corn or shoes his own horses; the housewife no longer spins and weaves and cuts and sews the clothing for her household. The different kinds of labor are relegated to the special trades. The same thing must become true of the different schools that constitute a harmonious system of education. There must be between them no interference, nor crossings of jurisdiction. Medical schools and law schools and theological schools and the schools of the mechanical arts must do a *special* and not a *general* work,—must have their well-defined orbits; and if the Normal Schools have no such special work to do, or if they neglect to do it,—if they have not their distinctive orbits, or if they wander from them,—then in some convulsion, at no distant day, they will perish as unnecessary or as disturbing members of the public educational system.

DISCUSSION OF PROF. McLOUTH'S PAPER.

This paper was discussed by E. C. HEWETT, of Illinois; J. C. GILCHRIST, of Iowa; EDWARD BROOKS, of Pennsylvania; GRACE C. BIBB, of Missouri;

W: F. PHELPS, of Minnesota; T. M. MARSHALL, of West Virginia, and others. The discussion showed a divided sentiment as to excluding academic instruction from Normal Schools. The only remarks furnished were those of Mr. MARSHALL.

REMARKS OF MR. MARSHALL.

Two gentlemen have just said that nine-tenths of the Normal Schools do redundant work, by reteaching what has already been taught in the High School. They are evidently mistaken. Men are too likely to view things from a narrow stand-point. I have heard these local views expressed to a greater or less extent here every year since I became a member. But I am heartily glad that the discussions in this Department this year have been more truly practical than any I have heretofore heard.

It has been acknowledged on all hands that some literary work,—more or less according to situation or circumstances,—must be done by Normal Schools in order that their pupils shall know the subject-matter to be taught as it must be known by the good teacher. This is wiser than what I have often heard here formerly.

I also beg leave to call the attention of gentlemen to the fact that this is a large country, very diverse in population and feature, and yet more diverse in school matters than in other things.

Those Normal Schools which admit only the best graduates of High Schools, have, of course, little or no literary work that they need to do; and yet, even they may find that a thorough *review* of the branches which are taught in primary and grammar schools, and which their students have not given attention to for some years, is highly beneficial. One can not know a thing too well, especially when he is to teach it.

However, we will admit that under such circumstances, nothing but professional studies need be pursued, and nothing but professional work done, still the assertions of the gentlemen are, in my opinion, entirely too far reaching.

There are many places where there are so few High Schools or where their average work is of such a quality that a high standard of admission to Normal Schools cannot be maintained. The Normal Pupils could not be found, and the school would die.

A prominent element in success is adaptability. Then allow the Normal Schools to adapt themselves, as Prof. McLouth has done, and as others do and have done, to their surrounding, merely requiring of them thorough work in their graduates in *both* the academic and the Normal curricula.

The following persons were elected officers for next year, in accordance with the recommendation of the nominating committee:—

President—J. C. GILCHRIST, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

Vice-President—EDWIN C. HEWETT, Normal, Ill.

Secretary—G. W. FETTER, Philadelphia, Pa.

Adjourned.

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department met in the Assembly Room of the Girls' Normal-School Building, at 3 P. M. The Secretary being absent W. A. BELL of Indiana, was appointed Secretary *pro tem*.

The President, GEO. P. BROWN then delivered the following address on

CULTURE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

I cannot better express to the ladies and gentlemen of this Association my appreciation of the honor conferred upon me, in electing me to preside over your deliberations, than to assure you that I have compressed what I have to say into very narrow limits. In this opening address I shall attempt to answer briefly the question: What can the elementary schools do more than they are now doing to promote culture among the people?

Culture is a word much used. It has a variety of meanings, if we may judge from the great variety of things that it is used to name. Yet most agree that the thing it names to each one using the word, it is desirable to obtain and the schools should encourage. An accepted authority in defining culture makes it a synonym for civilization. That is not the meaning given to the word in this paper.

Culture deals with the spiritual growth and development of the individual. Civilization addresses itself to social needs and conveniences.

Culture is concerned with the real inner life of the man. Civilization is the machinery of life expressed in their inventions and organizations that promote social happiness and physical comfort.

Culture creates the idea; civilization furnishes the instruments for the realization of an idea.

Culture produced a SHAKESPEARE, a MILTON, a GOETHE, an EMERSON; civilization produced a FULTON, a MORSE, and an EDISON.

Culture makes souls; civilization makes railroads—good things, it is true, but not so good as souls.

Ours is pre-eminently an age of civilization rather than of culture.

It is an age of concentration rather than of expansion. Culture precedes and produces civilization. An age of expansion has ever been followed by an age of concentration; of the practical application of ideas to organizations and institutions. In the fulness of time this in turn gives place to an age of expansion, for, as MATTHEW ARNOLD says: "Man, after he has made himself comfortable and has to determine what to do with himself

next, will begin to remember that he has a mind, and that the mind may be made the source of great pleasure."

Nor is our definition of culture that of the English statesman who called it "a smattering of the two dead languages of Greek and Latin."

Nor is it that which is implied in the following words of another Englishman:—"The silliest cant of the day is the cant about culture. Culture is a desirable quality in a critic of new books, and sits well on a possessor of belles-lettres. The man of culture is in politics one of the poorest mortals alive. For simple pedantry and want of good sense, no man is his equal. Perhaps men of culture are the only class of responsible beings who cannot, with safety, be entrusted with power."

If culture were merely a smattering of the two dead languages of Greek and Latin, this would probably be a fair estimate of its value.

But our definition suggests no necessary relation to a knowledge of the dead languages. The essentials of that culture which the elementary schools should strive to promote are three. In this discussion I have borrowed a few phrases from the writings of MATTHEW ARNOLD, which more happily express my thought than would any words of my own.

Culture is, first, "a knowledge of the best that has been thought and said in the world." It is a knowledge of the history of the humane spirit.

Culture is, in the second place, "that tact and delicacy of judgment" by which one is able to estimate properly the relations in what he reads, and of what he reads to his own environment. Culture is more than these, it is that spirit and desire which prompts him who has the knowledge and judgment to discern the right, to labor to make the right prevail.

Some one has said that the object of culture is to make an "intelligent being more intelligent." But true culture is more than this. It is not only the knowledge and tact to discover what "reason and the will of God are," but it is an active, earnest desire to make "reason and the will of God prevail."

Whether or not this definition shall pass with you as *the* definition of culture, all must admit that it is a definition of culture and that it describes a quality of great value. More than this, we must admit that it is the one thing needful, compared with which all other acquisitions are small and unworthy. To promote this culture should be the end and purpose of instruction in every grade of school. It should be the end and purpose of instruction everywhere.

It is eminently fitting that the teacher give special heed to this matter at this time for the following reasons:

The time is not distant when the question of the continued existence of a Government "of the people, for the people, and by the people," will have to be answered. How it shall be answered will depend upon the extent to which culture prevails. Even now religious beliefs are rapidly changing. Statements of doctrine that lately were accepted without question are now rejected by many and apologized for by more. The Bible, that in our childhood was generally and reverently thought to be the language of the Creator addressed to his creatures, has come to be to many but the mythology of a peculiar people. To others it is a poem, written in the language of literature, and not in the language of science. To a large

majority it has ceased to have that sacredness and infallibility which they formerly attached to it.

God, who but yesterday was a being who thinks, loves, and wills, the personal and self-conscious ruler of the universe, has come to be to many but the law of molecular activity, and to many others little more than the aggregation in thought of abstract attributes and principles by which to test our conduct.

It is a time of revolution in religious opinions and beliefs, and it needs no prophetic vision to see that the time for a revolution in the State is at hand. Like all revolutions it will be attended by great destruction. Destruction of much that is outgrown and a barrier to progress, we must admit this we can afford to lose; but destruction as well of much that, if preserved, would be helpful. In the progress of this iconoclastic movement many will experience shipwreck of their faith in religion and God. To discard the form will be to them to discard the substance. When they find in the Bible statements which they have come to believe do not fit the truth as since revealed, all reverence for its teaching ceases. When they are forced to the conclusion, that a mistake has been made in thinking of God as having the form and other attributes of man, a personal self-conscious ruler of the universe, they are ready to exclaim there is no God! When Heaven ceases to be with them a city with golden streets and jasper walls, it ceases to be, and immortality becomes a delusion. In passing from one mount of vision to another we must ever pass through the Slough of Despond. Is it too much to say that whether he shall attain the second mount after having been driven from the first or will be stifled in the slough, will depend upon his culture. Will not a "knowledge of the best that has been thought and said in the world," a knowledge of the history of the humane spirit and "that tact and delicacy of judgment" that the acquiring of this knowledge can be made to give, whereby one may determine more clearly what reason and the will of God are, and add to this the earnest, active desire to make reason and the will of God prevail—will not these, I say, help him to pass the slough, to go safely by the lions, to escape from the castle of doubt, and to climb the highest mount from which a wider and clearer view of his relations to man and to God shall bring a more rational and enduring peace to his troubled soul?

We may lament that men should ever leave the mount of vision on which they were born and seek for any other view than is there presented. But the fact remains that they are doing this, and will ever do it, so long as knowledge increases and an honest effort is made to know the truth. Change prevails everywhere and in all things. Whether in the world of spirit that change shall be progress will depend in no small degree upon the teacher's successful effort to make intelligent beings more intelligent, and inspire them with the desire to labor to make the truth prevail.

In an age when thought was stagnant, culture could with comparative safety be limited to the controlling few; but in an age when thought is everywhere active and aggressive, the culture of all is the only safeguard against anarchy in thought or in conduct.

Leaving this broader view of the relation of culture to civilization and religion, let us consider what relation it sustains to the system of education with which we are especially concerned.

I have called this an age of civilization. It were better to call it an age of machinery. Men are engaged in the study and use of machinery on the farm, in the house, in the manufactory, in our means of transportation, and in our means of communicating intelligence. But machinery is not limited to the world of matter. It has invaded the world of spirit. The people are absorbed in the study of the machinery of politics, of the Church, and of social life. Every one is trying to invent or is learning to use some machine.

From this absorbing interest in machinery two things result which concern the school. One is that the people are demanding what they call a practical education for their children. The value of each subject taught in the schools is estimated by the immediate relation it bears to the machinery of life. Arithmetic must be taught because it is of use in keeping accounts. Penmanship is valuable for the same reason. One must learn how to read, not for the culture derived therefrom, but because through the machinery of the press knowledge of all other machinery is disseminated. Drawing is taught not for its æsthetic culture. Few have the hardihood to advocate it on that ground. The potent arguments are those which emphasize its commercial value in designing patterns for wall paper or calico.

An education, to be practical, must, according to this view, have immediate and direct reference to the machinery of life.

The second result that concerns the school is that the teacher has become a more devout worshipper of machinery than the patron; not the machinery of life but the machinery of the school. It is the *how* more than the *what* for which he feels professional concern. So strong is the pupil's belief in the importance of machinery that he considers a breach of order a greater school sin than a breach of good faith. Go into our best schools, so called. In most of them loyalty to truth is less regarded than loyalty to order and routine. When this is not so it is because the teacher has the strength and courage to resist the prevailing tendency.

Then there is the machinery of the stated examination and of estimating the pupil's standing by his per cents. The average teacher in our elementary schools, I will go further and say that all these teachers, with few exceptions, and all the pupils, with fewer exceptions, are much more concerned that the school shall be able to answer the particular questions that may be asked upon examination day, than that they shall have a clear and comprehensive knowledge of the subject taught. The teacher is not censurable to any great degree for all this. He is but following the directions of his superiors. The superintendent, who has worked long enough with his eyes open to discover the truth of what I have said, thinks he is not to blame. His excuse is that it is the fashion to estimate the standing of a school in this way, and that a show of good order and good per cents is what pleases the public. I know of schools in one of the larger cities where the pupils receive 110 per cent in scholarship. Cities having the poorest schools, make, as a rule, a showing of the highest per cents on examination.

I think that the Superintendent is to blame. It is he that made the standard, and it is he that should change it. He is employed, because of

his professional skill, to determine what is best for the school, not what will please the public. He is there as an expert to direct public opinion, not to be controlled by it. When he shall determine that culture rather than machinery shall determine the excellence of the school, the public will not be slow to adopt that standard. I do not undervalue good order and examination tests. Every good school is orderly and able to bear these tests. But a school may be all this and yet be a poor school. That which is best or worst in a school cannot be discovered by arithmetical computation. It is neither the earthquake nor the storm, but the still small voice.

Now the relation that this machinery bears to the integrity and perpetuity of the public-school system it is important to consider. The unfavorable criticism of which we have heard so much during the past few years, is a reason for the teacher's giving heed to the matter. Objections come, sometimes in one form, sometimes in another, but they all indicate dissatisfaction with the results obtained. They are telling us that these results are not commensurate with the time and money spent obtaining them.

If I were talking to an audience of teachers west of the Alleghany Mountains, I should say that there is much ground for this complaint. This same public that took the Superintendent at his word, and pronounce that a good school which can obtain good per cents, are beginning to question the value of these products. They have not yet begun to inquire whether they are measuring the school by the right standard, and whether, possibly, the Superintendent may not be wrong in parading his order and his per cents. They suppose the schools to be good schools. But they say they are not worth what they cost; and, immediately, they begin to inquire how this expense can be made less.

Naturally the High School is first attacked. The people are dissatisfied with these results, for the reason that the teacher is so much absorbed in the machinery of the school that he neglects to give the pupil any sufficient preparation for the machinery of life. But this is not the bottom reason. Without detracting from the average American's loyalty to machinery, it can be said that there is in his mind a thought, of which he is half conscious, that power is of more importance than the machine; that a practical education after all means the possession of those elements of power that may be applied everywhere. If the public were to formulate their objections to the High School, they would be expressed somewhat as follows:

The pupil of average ability who graduates from our High School cannot read. Put him to the test, you will find that he cannot read intelligently any of our English classics. He has formed no taste for reading good books. He has made no start in acquiring a knowledge of the best that has been thought or said in the world. His knowledge of literature, as tested by the stated examination, is limited to a brief biography of a few authors and one or more brief selections from their writings. He will repeat some author's comparison of POPE and DRYDEN or of GOETHE and BYRON, without having ever read ten lines from either. He is thus encouraged to think that he knows something of literature,

but there is little that interests him in such knowledge, and nothing that will urge him on to further research and a more extended reading. The following examination test was thought worthy of a place in the Educational exhibit made at the Centennial, and will therefore be considered a fair illustration of this statement :

The question asked was:—"Who were ARISTOTLE, CICERO, and QUINTILIAN ? Give an account of their systems, and point out their defects when submitted to modern criticism ?" The answer was as follows :

"ARISTOTLE, a Greek rhetorician, is called the founder of criticism and of grammar, but his works are rather outlines than perfect models." Then follows an apology for ARISTOTLE, and the damage done to his reputation is repaired by reminding us of the backward state of science at that time. For CICERO, there is only censure for having "made rhetoric to consist of invention, and not in conviction;" and QUINTILIAN receives quite as little approval. His definition of Rhetoric is pronounced too general, since it comprises the following conditions:—"To think correctly which belongs to logic, to construct well which belongs to grammar; and to reason well which belongs to the science of reasoning!" There was great unanimity of opinion among all the members of the class, and great uniformity of language.

Now this high-sounding criticism was made by girls, who in all probability, had never read a page of the writings of either of these authors. No inducement remains to read them, for has it not been decided in advance that they are blind guides? It is easy for us to agree with the learned President of the French Educational Commission, that "it is better to be forever ignorant of QUINTILIAN, ARISTOTLE, and the rest than to know them after this fashion."

But the graduate from our High School not only cannot read, and has no foundation laid for acquiring a knowledge of the best things that have been thought and said in the world; he cannot *write*. Test him and it will be found that he has practically no power of independent thought or expression. There is no method in the little thinking that he does, and he has no power of discrimination or generalization. His power of criticism has never been exercised, unless we call the caricature just quoted criticism.

He has no proper development of his own powers and no mastery of himself by which he can lay hold of the knowledge he has acquired and put it to practical use.

In short, no foundation has been laid for the development of that tact and delicacy of judgment which is one of the elements of culture and which is so essential to good citizenship and rational conduct.

I might continue to point out other deficiencies of our High-School graduate, but will complete this unpleasant summary of short-comings by the general statement, that he knows nothing thoroughly. He has a smattering of many things, but nothing whole.

I believe that more power is required of the kind necessary to culture by the thorough and complete mastery of a single subject, so that the student shall feel at home in it than by spending his time in receiving introductions to twenty. Unless I have failed to express the thought

that has been in my mind from the beginning, it has been already suggested that to promote culture among the people the elementary schools and the High Schools also must teach reading and writing better than they are now taught. Civilization has changed from the primitive, plodding, patriarchal life of fifty years ago to the busy, bustling world of to-day.

The distinction of city and country no longer exists. The railroad, the telegraph, and the daily papers have made these one, and that one is the city.

The circle of the sciences has been enlarged, and the applications of these sciences to practical life have been multiplied. Philological researches have awakened new interest in the study of language. New inventions have created new vocations for which a special education is required. All this has tended to distract the attention of people and of teachers from the pre-eminent importance of a thorough teaching of the three R's. Hardly has the pupil developed age and strength sufficient to make the study of these subjects profitable as a means of culture, ere they are dropped from the course, and he is set to learning the elementary definitions of some other study, which in turn gives place to something else ere it is fairly begun.

The *elementary schools* afford too little instruction in reading and writing. Not too little time, perhaps, but too little thought and study are given to these subjects. I was in a "good school" recently. The machinery was working perfectly. Per cents in order and examination were undoubtedly high. A class was reading the "Old Oaken Bucket." The lesson was completed in good order. Pronunciation, enunciation, position, modulation, quality of tone, all near the standard. After the exercise was finished, the teacher, with a gratified look, requested me to ask the class some questions. I asked first how many buckets were in the well. The reply came quickly from several that there were *three*—"the old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket, and the moss-covered bucket." I then called their attention to the couplet—

"And soon, with the emblem of truth overflowing,
And dripping with coolness, it rose from the well,"

and inquired what was the emblem of truth here spoken of. After some hesitation one of the bolder pupils said she thought it was an *eagle*.

Now is it too much to say that this teacher gave heed to the anise and cummin and neglected the weightier matters?

Composition, other than the formal construction of sentences that express no thought, is neglected in every grade of school. The way is here open to start the pupil in the work of analysis, comparison, discrimination, and criticism, that shall in time develop into "tact and delicacy of judgment" which belong to culture.

And, finally, I believe it is through the study of reading and of composition in every grade of the school, that study which shall have for its object the gaining of knowledge of the "best that has been thought and said in the world," and the formation of that tact and delicacy of judgment which a careful comparison of these thoughts in conversation and written composition shall develop, and the discovery of those relations in the thought of

all time that tend to steady and strengthen our faith in the final working of all things for good—it is in and through all this, I say, that will grow that third element of culture which is the crowning excellence of every man or woman who possesses it; the active, earnest desire to make reason and the will of God prevail.

In the discussion Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio, said that he feared that too much is expected of the boys and girls. The subject of literature is a broad one, and many questions may be asked that those mature in life and well read in books cannot answer. Persons frequently go before a class and ask certain questions, and because they are not answered correctly draw the conclusion that the class knows nothing. They seem to forget that what is unknown is always greater than what is known by any one of ordinary culture in this line. Machinery in school is too much decried: proper machinery properly used is an element of great strength in education. We should criticize discriminatingly the faults of our public schools.

A. L. WADE, of Morgantown, West Virginia, was pleased with the spirit of the address: its principal fault was its tendency to fault-finding.

Mr. BROWN said that no one should excel him in his loyalty to the public schools, and insisted that nothing was to be gained by covering up their defects.

Miss LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Philadelphia, insisted that Mr. Brown's illustrations were fair, and claimed that many things are very poorly taught in the public schools.

W. T. HARRIS, LL. D., Superintendent of Public Instruction at Saint Louis, Mo., delivered an address on

THE RELATIONS OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO THE SCHOOL.

What are the claims of the Kindergarten as a department of Public-School Education?

This question involves a consideration of many subordinate questions relative to the province of the school in the education of human life as a whole—for it is clear life itself as a whole is a system of education; for man is a being of constant development, and in every epoch of his life an education goes on. There are well-defined epochs of growth or of education—that of infancy in which education is chiefly that of use and wont, the formation of habits as regards the care of the person and the conduct within family life,—that of youth wherein the child learns in the school how to handle those instrumentalities which enable him to participate in the intellectual or theoretical acquisitions of the human race, and wherein, at the same time, he learns those habits of industry, regularity, and punctuality, and self-control which enable him to combine with his fellow-men in civil society and in the State—then there is that education which follows the period of school education, the education

which one gets by the apprenticeship to a vocation or calling in life. Other spheres of education are the state or body-politic and its relation to the individual wherein the latter acts as citizen making laws through his elected representatives and assisting in their execution, the church wherein he learns to see all things under the form of eternity and derive thence the ultimate standards of his theory and practice in life.

The question of the Kindergarten also involves—besides this one of province, i. e. the question of whether there is a place for it—the consideration of its disciplines or what it accomplishes in the way of giving theoretical insight or of practical will power; these two and the emotional nature of the human being. Exactly what does the Kindergarten attempt to do in these directions? And then, after the what it does is ascertained, arises the question whether it is desirable to attempt such instruction in the school, whether it does not take the place of more desirable training which the school has all along been furnishing—or whether it does not on the other hand, trench on the province of the education within the family, a period of nurture wherein the pupil gets most of his internal or subjective, emotional life developed. If the Kindergarten takes the child too soon from the family and abridges the period of nurture it must perforce injure his character as a whole; for the period of nurture is like the root-life of the plant, essential for the development of the above-ground life of the plant, essential for the public life of the man, the life wherein he combines with his fellow-men.

Then, again, there is involved the question of education for vocation in life, the preparation for the arts and trades that are to follow school life, as the third epoch in life-education. Should the education into the technicalities of vocations be carried down into the school life of the pupil, still more should it be carried down into the earliest period of transition from the nurture period to the school period?

Besides these essential questions there are many others of a subsidiary nature, those relating to expense, to the training of teachers and their supply, to the ability of public-school boards to manage such institutions, to the proper buildings for their use, the proper length of sessions, the degree of strictness of discipline to be preserved, &c., &c. The former essential questions relate to the desirability of Kindergarten-education, the latter relate to the practicability of securing it.

In order to present these issues to you in their most interesting aspects I shall first speak of the merits claimed by its advocates for the Kindergarten, and attempt to set forth some of the results which I have seen accomplished by it.

The most enthusiastic advocates of the Kindergarten offer as grounds for its establishment such claims for its efficiency as might be reasonably claimed for the totality of human education in its fivefold aspect of nurture, school, vocation, state, and church. If what they claim for it were met with as actual results, we certainly should realize the fairest ideals of a perfected type of humanity at once. Such claims, however, can be true only of a life-long education in its fivefold aspect, and not of any possible education which lasts only from one to four years in the life of the individual. Notwithstanding this exaggeration it may prove to be the case

that the Kindergarten is justified in claiming a province heretofore unoccupied by the school or by family nurture and a province which is of the utmost importance to the right development of those phases of life which follow it. It is, indeed, no reproach to the "New Education" (as they call it) to accuse them of exaggeration. The only fault which we may charge them with, is a tendency to exclusiveness—to a tendency to ignore the educational possibilities of the other provinces of human life, and especially those of the school as it has hitherto existed.

To illustrate the breadth of view which the advocates of the Kindergarten entertain in regard to the theory and practical value of the Kindergarten I quote here a statement of its *rationale* furnished me by Miss ELIZABETH PEABODY, justly considered the leading advocate for the new education in this country:

"The *rationale* of FROEBEL's method of education is only to be given by a statement of the eternal laws which organize human nature on the one side and the material universe on the other. Human nature and the material universe are related contrasts which it is the personal life of every human being to *unify*. Material nature is the unconscious manifestation of God, and includes the human body with which men find themselves in relation so vital that he takes part in perfecting it by means of the organs,—and this part of nature is the only part of nature which can be said to be dominated vitally by man, who, in the instance of Jesus CHRIST, so purified it by never violating any law of Human Nature—which (Human Nature) is God's intentional revelation of himself to each—that he seems to have had complete dominion, and could make himself visible or invisible at will—transfiguring his natural body by his spiritual body, as on the Mount of Transfiguration—or consuming it utterly as on the Mount of Ascension. Whether man in this atmosphere will ever do this and thus abolish natural death, *or not*, there is no doubt there will be infinite approximation to this glorification of humanity in proportion as education does justice to the children, as FROEBEL's education aims to do it, for it is his principle to lead children to educate themselves from the beginning, like SOCRATES's demon—forbidding the wrong and leaving the self-activity free to goodness and truth—which it is destined to pursue forever and ever."

The disciples of FROEBEL everywhere see the world in this way. With them the theory of the Kindergarten is a theory of the world of MAN and Nature. FROEBEL himself was as much a religious (or moral) enthusiast as a pedagogical reformer. The moral regeneration of the race is the inspiring ideal which his followers aim to realize.

I do not disparage this lofty ideal—I revere it, as the ideal which every teacher should cherish. No other one is a worthy one for the teacher of youth! But I think that any gifted teacher, in our district schools, our High Schools, or our Colleges, may as reasonably as the teacher of the Kindergarten have this lofty expectation of the moral regeneration of the race to follow from his teachings. If the child is more susceptible at the early age when he enters the Kindergarten, and it is far easier then to mould his personal habits, his physical strength and skill, and his demeanor toward his equals and his superiors, yet, on the other hand, the

High-School teacher or the College professor comes into relation with him when he has begun to demand for himself an explanation of the problem of life and it is possible, for the first time, at this age to lead him to INSIGHT—the immediate philosophical view of the universality and necessity of Principles. Insight is the faculty of highest principles and of course more important than all other theoretical disciplines. It is therefore probable that the opportunity of the teacher who instructs pupils at sixteen years and upwards is, on an average, more precious for the welfare of the individual than is the opportunity of the teacher whose pupils are under the age of six. This advantage, however, the teacher of the youngest pupils has, that she may give them an impulse that will cause them to continue their education in after life. The primary school with its four-years' course usually gets five pupils where the grammar school with a course of four years gets only one pupil. The importance of the primary school is seen in the fact that it affects a much larger proportion of the inhabitants of community, while the importance of the high school rests on the fact that its education develops insight and directive power, so that its graduates do most of the thinking and planning for the community.

But there are special disciplines which the child of five years may receive profitably that the youth of sixteen would find unproductive.

There has been for some time a clamor in favor of the introduction of the arts and trades into the common schools. It has been supposed by self-styled "practical" writers on education that the school should fit the youth for the practice of some vocation or calling. They would have the child learn a trade, as well as reading, writing, and arithmetic; and the most zealous of them demand that it shall be a trade and not much else. But the good sense of the educational world as a whole has not been moved to depart from the even tenor of its way by this clamor, and has defended its preference for technical, conventional, and disciplinary training, of a general character, useful for each and every one, no matter what his vocation shall be. Who can tell in the child what special vocation the individual will best follow when he grows up? Besides this the whole time of the child so far as it can be had without overtasking him is needed from the period of six or seven years to sixteen years in order to give him a proper amount of this training in technical, conventional, and disciplinary studies. Moreover, it is said that these several studies are the keys to the worlds of nature and man, and that they transcend in value any special forms of skill such as arts and trades, by as great a degree as the general law surpasses the particular instance. It is claimed that arithmetic, the science of numbers for example, is indispensable in a thousand arts and sciences, while each art has much in it that is special and of limited application in the other arts.

But on the other hand analytical investigation has done much in the way of singling out from the physical movements involved in the trades, those which are common and may be provided for by general disciplines of the body which may be introduced into the school along with the science underlying the art. For example, the theory and practice of drawing furnish a kind of propædæutics to all of the arts and trades and could not fail to make more skilful the workman, whatever his calling.

Drawing then may properly enter the programme of all the schools, having its claim acknowledged to be a general discipline.

But while we may acknowledge the transcendent importance of the regular branches for the period of time claimed by the school at present—namely from the age of six to sixteen—it must be conceded that the age from four years to six years is not mature enough to receive profit from the studies of the school.

The conventional and the disciplinary studies are too much for the powers of the child of four years or five years. But the child of four years or five years is in a period of transition out of the stage of education which we have named “nurture.” He begins to learn of the out-door life, of the occupations and ways of people beyond the family circle, and to long for a further acquaintance with them. He begins to demand society with others of his own age outside his family, and to repeat for himself in miniature the picture of the great world of civil society, mimicking it in his plays and games. Through play the child gains individuality; his internal—“subjective” as it is called—nature becomes active and he learns to know his own tendencies and proclivities. Through caprice and arbitrariness the child learns to have a will of his own, and not to exercise a mere mechanical compliance with the will of his elders.

It is at this period of transition from the life in the family to that of the school, that the kindergarten furnishes what is most desirable, and, in doing so, solves many problems hitherto difficult of solution. The genius of FROEBEL has provided a system of discipline and instruction which is wonderfully adapted to this stage of the child's growth, when he needs the gentleness of nurture and the rational order of the school in due admixture. The “Gifts and Occupations” as he calls them, furnish an initiation into the arts and sciences; and they do this in a manner half playful, half serious. Of the twenty gifts which the system offers, the first six form a group having the one object to familiarize the child with the elementary notions of geometry. He learns the forms of solids: the cube, sphere, and cylinder, and their various surfaces,—also divisions of the cube and combinations of the cube and its divisions in building various objects. He learns counting and measuring by the eye, for the cube and its divisions are made on a scale of an inch and fractions of an inch—and the squares into which the surface of his table is divided are square inches. Counting, adding, subtracting, and dividing the parts of the cube give him the elementary operations of arithmetic so far as small numbers are concerned, and give him a very practical knowledge of them. For he can use his knowledge and he has developed it step by step with his own activity.

It is always the desideratum in education to secure the maximum of self-activity in the pupil. The kindergarten gifts are the best instrumentalities ever devised for the purpose of educating children through self-activity. Other devices may do this—other devices have done it; but FROEBEL's apparatus is most successful. It is this fact that occasions the exaggerated estimate which his disciples place upon the originality of FROEBEL's methods. Long before his day, it was known and stated as the first principle of pedagogy, that the pupil is educated not by what others

do for him, but by what he is led to do for himself. But FROEBEL's system of gifts is so far in advance of other systems of apparatus for primary instruction as to create an impression in the mind of the one who first studies it that FROEBEL is the original discoverer of the pedagogical law of self-activity in the pupil. The teacher who has already learned correct methods of instruction or who has read some in the history of pedagogy, knows this principle of self-activity, but has never found outside of the kindergarten so wonderful a system of devices for the proper education of the child of five years old.

The first group of gifts, including the first six of the twenty, as already remarked, takes up the forms of solids and their division and therefore deals with forms and numbers as regards solids. The second group of gifts includes the four from the seventh to the tenth and concerns surfaces; it leads up from the manipulation of thin blocks or tablets, to drawing with a pencil on paper ruled in squares. In drawing the child has reached the ideal representation of solids by means of light and shade—marks made on a surface to represent outlines. The intermediate gifts—the eighth and ninth—relate to stick-laying and ring-laying, representing outlines of objects by means of straight and curved sticks and wires. This in itself, is a well-devised link between the quadrangular and triangular tablets (which are treated only as surfaces) and the art of drawing—we have a complete transition from the tangible solid to the ideal representation of it.

Counting and the elementary operations in numbers continue through all the subsequent groups of gifts, but in the first group are the chief object. In the first group the solid in its various shapes is the object of study for the child. He learns to recognize and name the surfaces, corners, angles, &c., which bound it. In the second group the surface and its corners or angles become the sole object. But the child begins the second group with the surface represented by tablets (thin blocks) and proceeds to represent more outlines by means of sticks or wire, (in the eighth gift,) and then to leave the solid form altogether and to make an ideal one by means of pencil-marks on slate or paper—in the tenth gift.) The drawing paper, ruled in squares of an inch like the kindergarten table, is the best device for training the muscles of the fingers and hand to accuracy. The untrained muscles of the hand of the child cannot guide the pencil so as to make entire forms at first. But by the device of the ruled squares he is enabled to construct forms by the simple process of drawing straight lines vertical, horizontal, and oblique, connecting the sides and corners of the ruled squares. The training of the eye and hand in the use of this tenth gift is the surest and most effective discipline ever invented for the purpose.

Here it becomes evident that if the school is to prepare especially for the arts and trades, it is the kindergarten which is to accomplish the object. For the training of the muscles—if it is to be a training for special skill in manipulation must be begun in early youth. As age advances it becomes more difficult to acquire new phases of manual dexterity.

Two weeks' practice of holding objects in his right hand will make the infant in his first year, right-handed for life. The muscles yet in a pulpy consistency are very easily set in any fixed direction. The child trained

for one year on FROEBEL's gifts and occupations will acquire a skilful use of his hands and a habit of accurate measurement of the eye which will be his possession for life.

But the arts and trades are provided for in a still more effective manner by the subsequent groups of gifts. The first group, as we have seen, trains the eye and the sense of touch and gives a technical acquaintance with solids and with the elementary operations of arithmetic. The second group frees him from the hard limits which have confined him to the reproduction of forms by mere solids, and enables him to represent by means of light and shade. His activity at each step becomes more purely creative as regards the production of forms and more rational as regards intellectual comprehension;—for he ascends from concrete particular, tangible objects, to abstract, general truths and archetypal forms.

The third group of gifts includes the eleventh and twelfth, and develops new forms of skill, less general and more practical. Having learned how to draw outlines of objects by the first ten gifts the eleventh and twelfth gifts teach the pupil how to embroider, *i. e.*, how to represent outlines of objects by means of needle and thread. The eleventh gift takes the first step by teaching the use of the perforating needle. The child learns to represent outlines of forms by perforations in paper or cardboard. Then in the twelfth gift he learns the art of embroidering; and of course with this he learns the art of sewing and its manifold kindred arts. The art of embroidery calls into activity the muscles of the hand and especially those of the fingers, the eye in accurate measurement, and the intellectual activities required in the geometrical and arithmetical processes involved in the work.

The fourth group of gifts (including the thirteenth to the eighteenth) introduces the important art of weaving and plaiting.

Among the primitive arts of man this was the most useful. It secures the maximum of lightness with the maximum of strength by using fragile material in such a manner as to convert the linear into the surface, and to combine the weak materials into the form of mutual firm support.

The thirteenth gift (with which the fourth group begins) teaches how to cut the paper into strips; the fourteenth weaves the strips into mats or baskets with figures of various devices formed by the meshes; the fifteenth gift uses thin slats of wood for plaiting, and the sixteenth uses the same jointed, with a view to reproducing forms of surfaces; the seventeenth gift intertwines paper, and the eighteenth constructs elaborate shapes by folding paper. This group constructs surfaces by the method of combining strips, or linear materials;—vessels of capacity (baskets, sieves, nets, etc.) clothing of woven cloth, shelter (tents, etc.) are furnished by branches of this art.

Wood is linear in its structure, and stronger in the direction of the grain of the wood. Hence it became necessary to invent a mode of adding lateral strength by crossing the fibres in the form of weaving or plaiting, in order to secure the maximum of strength with the minimum of bulk and weight. Besides wood, there are various forms of flexible plants (the willow, etc.) and textile fibres (hemp, flax, cotton, linen, etc.)

which cannot be utilized except in this manner, having longitudinal but not lateral cohesion.

In the fourth group of gifts the industrial direction of the work of the kindergarten becomes the most pronounced. There is more of practical value and less of theoretic value in its series of six gifts (thirteenth to eighteenth). But its disciplines are still general ones, like drawing, and furnish a necessary training for the hands and eyes of all who will labor for a livelihood—and besides these,—for all who will practise elegant employments for relaxation (ladies' embroidery) or athletic sports and amusements (the games and amusements that test accuracy of hand and eye, or mathematical combination, as marksmanship, hunting, fishing, ball-playing, archery, quoits, bowling, chess-playing, cards, etc.)

The fifth group, including the nineteenth and twentieth gifts, teaches the production of solid forms—as the fourth teaches the production of surfaces from the linear. The nineteenth, using corks (or peas soaked in water) and pieces of wire or sticks of various lengths and pointed ends, imitates various real objects and geometrical solids by producing their outlines or edges. This gift, too, furnishes the preparation for drawing in perspective. The twentieth, and last gift, uses some modelling material (potter's clay, beeswax, or other plastic substance) and teaches modelling of solid objects.

This group of gifts is propædæutic to the greater part of the culinary arts so far as they give shape to articles of food. It also prepares for the various arts of the foundry—casting or modelling—of the pottery, etc., and the fine arts of sculpture and the preparation of architectural ornament.

In the common school, drawing—which has obtained only a recent and precarious foothold in our course of study—is the only branch which is intended to cultivate skill in the hand and accuracy in the eye. The Kindergarten, on the other hand, develops this by all of its groups of gifts.

Not only is this training of great importance by reason of the fact that most children must depend largely upon manual skill for their future livelihood, but, from a broader point of view, we must value skill as the great potency which is emancipating the human race from drudgery by the aid of machinery. Inventions will free man from thralldom to time and space.

By reason of the fact already adverted to, that a short training of certain muscles of the infant will be followed by the continued growth of the same muscles through his after life, it is clear how it is that the two years of the child's life (his fifth and sixth) or even one year or a half-year, in the kindergarten will start into development activities of muscle and brain which will secure deftness and delicacy of industrial power in all after life. The rationale of this is found in the fact that it is a pleasure to use muscles already inured to use; in fact a much-used muscle demands a daily exercise as much as the stomach demands food. But an unused muscle, or a mere rudiment of a muscle, that has never been used, gives pain in its first use. Its use is accompanied with laceration of tissue and followed by lameness or by distress on using it again. Hence it happens that the body shrinks from using an unused muscle, but on the contrary

demands the frequent use of muscles already trained to use. Hence in a thousand ways unconscious ourselves, we manage to exercise daily whatever muscles we have already trained, and thus to keep in practice physical aptitudes for skill in any direction. The carriage of a man who appears awkward to us is so because of the fact that he uses only a few muscles of his body and holds the others under constraint as though he possessed no power to use them. Freedom of body, which we term gracefulness, is manifested in the complete command of every limb by the will. This is the element of beauty in the Greek Statuary. The gymnastic training may be easily recognized in a young man by his free carriage—as he moves, he uses a greater variety of muscles than the man of uncultivated physique. It follows that a muscle once trained to activity keeps itself in training or even adds by degrees to its development simply by demanding its daily exercise and securing it by some additional movement which it has added as subsidiary to activities in which other muscles are chiefly concerned. In his manner of sitting or rising, of walking or running, even of breathing, of writing or reading, one man varies from another through the use or disuse of subsidiary muscles thus kept in training or allowed to remain as undeveloped rudiments.

I have in this protracted discussion of the signification of FROEBEL'S gifts as a preparation for industrial life, indicated my own grounds for believing that the kindergarten is worthy of a place in the common-school system. It should be a sort of sub-primary education, and receive the pupil at the age of four or four and a half years and hold him until he completes his sixth year. By this means we gain the child for one or two years when he is good for nothing else but education, and not of much value even for the education of the school as it is and has been. The disciplines of Reading and Writing, Geography and Arithmetic, as taught in the ordinary primary school are beyond the powers of the average child not yet entered upon his seventh year. And beyond the seventh year the time of the child is too valuable to use it for other than general disciplines—reading, writing, arithmetic, etc.,—and drawing. He must not take up his school time with learning handicraft.

The kindergarten utilizes a period of the child's life for preparation for the arts and trades without robbing the school of a portion of its needed time.

Besides this industrial phase of the subject we must take note of another on the family side. At the age of three years the child begins to emerge from the circumscribed life of the family and to acquire an interest in the life of society and a proclivity to form relationship with it. This increases until the school period begins at his seventh year. The fourth, fifth, and sixth years are years of transition not well provided for either by family life in the United States, or by Society. In families of great poverty, the child forms evil associations on the street and is initiated into crime. By the time he is ready to enter the school he is hardened in vicious habits, beyond the power of the school to eradicate. In families of wealth the custom is to entrust the care of the child in this period of his life to some servant without pedagogical skill and generally

without strength of will-power. The child of wealthy parents usually inherits the superior directive power of the parents who have by their energy acquired and preserved the wealth. Its manifestation in the child is not reasonable, considerate, will-power, but arbitrariness and self-will—with such a degree of stubbornness that it quite overcomes the feebler native will of the servant who has charge of the children. It is difficult to tell which class the kindergarten benefits most. Society is benefited by the substitution of a rational training of the child's will during his transition period. If he is a child of poverty he is saved by the good associations and the industrial and intellectual training that he gets. If he is a child of wealth, he is saved by the kindergarten from ruin through self-indulgence and the corruption ensuing on weak management in the family. The worst elements in the community are the corrupted and ruined men who were once youths of unusual directive power, children of parents of great will-power.

Here then is a sufficient justification for the kindergarten in our common-school system. But the enthusiastic disciples of FROEBEL will turn away from this view of the favorite institution with a twinge of pain. This is not the justification of the kindergarten which they will adopt. They see moral regeneration of the human race as about to follow the new education, and it cannot be that this sordid industrial view is the chief ground for the introduction of the kindergarten into the public school.

I yield to their protest. I do not think that industrial and mathematical training is the whole of the educational result of the kindergarten. There is much else—some of it is similar to the benefits derived from the ordinary primary school, and some of it is additional. The instruction in manners and polite habits which goes on in all well-conducted kindergartens is of great value. The child is taught to behave properly at the table, to be clean in his personal habits, to be neat in the arrangement of his apparatus, to practice the etiquette and amenities of polite life. These things are much better provided for in FROEBEL's system than elsewhere. Moreover, there is a cultivation of imagination and of the inventive power, which possesses great significance for the future intellectual growth of the individual. The habits of regularity, punctuality, silence, obedience to established rules, and self-control, are taught to as great a degree as is desirable for pupils of that age, but not by any means so perfectly as in the ordinary well-conducted school. The two kinds of attention that are developed so well in a good school: (1) the attention of each pupil to his own task—so absorbed in it that he is oblivious to the work of the class reciting; and (2) the attention of the pupil in the class that is reciting, to the recitation,—an attention to the work of the pupil who is reciting—the attention of the whole class being concentrated on the same subject:—the first of these kinds of attention is the attention of industry, the second is that of critical observation—these kinds of attention are not so well developed in the kindergarten as in the primary school—nor is it to be expected that they should be.

The freedom of constraint which is essential in the Kindergarten or in any school for pupils of five years of age, allows much interference on the

part of each pupil with the work of others, and hence there is much distraction of attention. It is quite difficult to preserve an exact balance between the freedom from constraint and the respect due from one pupil to another. The teacher of the kindergarten is liable to allow the brisk, strong-willed children to interfere with the others and to occupy their attention too much.

As regards imagination and inventive power, while it is very important, it is easily stimulated to an abnormal degree. For if it is accompanied by conceit, there is a corresponding injury done to the faith and reverence of the child, traits which must accompany the child if he would come to the stores of wisdom which his race has preserved for him. The wisest men are those who have availed themselves most of the collected wisdom of the race. Self-activity, it is true, is essential to the assimilation of the intellectual patrimony, but it is a reverent spirit only that can sustain one in the long labor of acquiring, and mastering that patrimony.

The cultivation of language—of the power of expression, is much emphasized by the advocates of the kindergarten, and, I believe with fair results.

There is a species of philosophy, or view of the world, connected with the system which undoubtedly exercises a great influence over the minds of the followers of FROEBEL. It is apparently a system founded on that of SCHELLING—the famous “identity system” which defined the absolute to be the indifference or identity of spirit and nature. Its defect is that it deals with antitheses as resolvable only into “indifference” points—hence the highest principle must be an unconscious one—a pantheistic system when logically carried out. But FROEBEL does not seem to have carried it out strictly. He uses it chiefly to build on it as a foundation, his propædæutics of reflection, or the training of the thinking activity. Antithesis or the doctrine of opposites (mind and nature, light and darkness, sweet and sour, &c.) belongs only to the second elementary stage of reflection. It is, however, a necessary stage of thought and far above the activity of sense-perception. But compared with the thinking activity of the comprehending reason it is still very crude. Moreover, from the fact that it is not guided by a principle above reflection, it is very uncertain in its results. It is liable to fall from the stage of reflection which cognizes antitheses (antithesis is *essential* relation, relation which gives character to the terms of the relation) to the stage of reflection below it, which cognizes mere “likeness” and “difference” (which constitute non-essential relation). Such imperfection I conceive to belong to FROEBEL’s philosophic views, though I am far from attributing this as a fault to his pedagogics. For his philosophy is far deeper than that of PESTALOZZI, while his pedagogical system is more consistent both in theory and practice.

As regards the claimed transcendence of the system over all others in the way of moral development: I am inclined to grant some degree of superiority to it, but not for intrinsic reasons. It is because the child is taken at the age when he is liable to great demoralization at home, and is submitted to a gentle but firm discipline in the Kindergarten, that the new education proves of more than ordinary value as a moral discipline. The children of the poor, at the susceptible age of five years get many

lessons on the street that tend to corrupt them. The children of the rich, meeting no wholesome restraint, become self-willed and self-indulgent. The Kindergarten may save both classes and make rational self-control take the place of unrestrained, depraved impulse.

But the Kindergarten itself has dangers. The cultivation of self-activity may be excessive and tend to perversity and conceit. The pupil may get to be irreverent and overbearing—hardened against receiving instruction from others. In fact with a teacher whose discernment is dimmed by too much sentimental theory there is great danger that the weeds of selfishness will thrive faster among the children than the wholesome plants of self-knowledge and self-control. The apotheosis of childhood and infancy is a very dangerous theory to put in practice. It does well enough in WORDSWORTH'S great Ode as a sequence of the doctrine of Pre-existence, and it is quite necessary that we should, as educators, never forget that the humblest child—nay the most depraved child—has within him the possibility of the highest angelic being. But this angelic nature is only *implicit* and not explicit in the child, in the savage or in the uneducated. To use the language of ARISTOTLE, the undeveloped human being is a "*first entelechy*" while the developed cultured man is a second "*entelechy*." Both are "*by nature*" rational beings, but only the cultured man is rational actually. "By nature" signifies "potentially" or "containing the possibility of." There is no technical expression in the history of pedagogy with which more juggling has been done than with the word "*nature*." As used by most writers it signifies the ideal or normal type of the growth of anything. The nature of the oak realizes itself in the acorn-bearing monarch of the forest. The nature of man is realized in the angelic, god-like, being whose intellect, and will, and emotions are rational, moral, and pervaded by love. We hear the end of education spoken of as the "harmonious development of human nature, physical, intellectual, moral, and affectional." This "*nature*" in the sense of ideal or normal type, is however, liable to be confounded with "*nature*" in the opposite sense, viz.: nature as the external world. This confusion is the worst that could happen, when we are dealing with the problem of human life. For man by nature (i. e. as not self-made) is only the infant, or savage, the mere animal,—and his possible angelic nature is *only* possible. Moreover this possibility never will become actuality except through his own self-activity—he must make himself rational. For nature as the external world will never do this for him. Indeed, when nature as the external world is most active in its processes—say in the torrid zone—there the development of man will be most retarded. Nature as external world is a world of dependence, each thing being conditioned by everything else and hence under fate. The humblest clod on the earth pulsates with vibrations that have traveled hither from the farthest star. But the nature of man—human nature—must be freedom and not fate. It must be self-determined and not a mere "*thing*" which is made to be what it is by the constraining activity of the totality of conditions. Hence those who confuse these two meanings of "*nature*" juggle with the term and in one place mean the rational ideal of man, the self-determining mind, and in another place they mean a thing as the product of nature in time and space.

The result of this juggling is the old pedagogical contradiction found in ROUSSEAU throughout, and now and then in all pedagogical reformers, PESTALOZZI in particular, and even LOCKE before ROUSSEAU. To become rational man must learn to practice self-control, and to substitute moral purpose for mere impulse. Man inherits from Nature in time and space impulses and desires and as subject to them he is only a *Prometheus vincitus*, a slave of appetite and passion like all other animals. The infant begins his existence with a maximum amount of unconscious impulse and a minimum of conscious, rational, moral purpose. The disciple of FROEBEL who apotheosizes infancy and says with WORDSWORTH, :

"Heaven lies about us in our infancy,"

and who thinks the child is a

"Mighty prophet! Seer blest,
On whom those truths do rest
Which we are toiling all our lives to find,"

is prone to regard the Kindergarten as a "Child's Paradise," wherein he should be allowed to develop unrestrainedly. The principle: *laissez faire*—"let him alone"—is to fill the world with angels.

This belief in the perfection of Nature is the arch-heresy of education. It is the more dangerous because it has a side of deepest truth—the truth which makes education possible, viz. ; the possibility which man possesses of regeneration—of putting off his natural impulses and desires, his animal selfishness, and of putting on righteousness and holiness. His ideal nature must be made or realized by himself in order to be. His real nature as a product of time and space must be annulled and subordinated.

The child as individual and without availing himself of the help of his fellows is a mere slave—a thing—a being controlled by fate. Through participation with his fellow-men united into institutions—those infinite, rational organisms, the product of the intellect and will of the race conspiring through the ages of human history and inspired by the divine purpose which rules all as Providence,—through participation in institutions man is enabled to attain freedom, to complement his defects as individual by the deeds of the race. He subdues nature in time and space and makes it his servant, he collects the shreds of experience from the individuals of the race and combines them into wisdom, and preserves and transmits the same from generation to generation. He invents the instrumentalities of intercommunication—the alphabet, the art of printing, the telegraph and railroad, the scientific society, the publishing house, the bookstore, the library, the school, and greater than all, the newspaper. The poor, squalid individual, an insignificant atom in space and time, can by aid of these great institutions lift himself up to culture and infinitude. From being mere individual he can become generic, i. e., realize in himself the rationality of the entire species of the human race. By education we mean to do exactly this thing: to give to the individual the means of this participation in the aggregate labors of humanity.

Hence we are bound to consider education practically as a process of initiating the particular individual into the life of his race as intellect and

will-power. We must give him the means to help himself and the habit and custom of helping himself to participate in the labors of his fellow-men and to become a contributor to the store of productions created by mankind. Institutions—the family; civil society with its arts and trades, and professions, and establishments, schools, &c.; the state with its more comprehensive organizations; and finally the church;—these are greater than the individual and they are products of his ideal nature, and exist solely as means whereby the individual may develop his ideal.

The Kindergarten then has the same general object that the school has had all along:—to eliminate what is merely animal from the child's soul, and to develop in its place the rational and spiritual life.

Now as regards the theory of the Kindergarten there is one more consideration which is too important to pass by. The theory of Play as an educational element.

The school had been too much impressed with the main fact of its mission, viz.: to eliminate the animal nature and to superinduce the spiritual nature, and had not noticed the educative function of play. FROEBEL is the first fully to appreciate this and to devise a proper series of disciplines for the youngest children.

The old *régime* of the school did not pay respect enough to the principle of self-activity.

It sacrificed spontaneity in an utterly unnecessary manner instead of developing it into rational self-determination.

Hence it produced human machines governed by prescription and conventionality, and but few enlightened, spontaneous personalities who possessed insight as well as law-abiding habit. Such machines governed by prescription would develop into law-breakers the moment that the pressure of social constraint was removed from them. They did not possess enough individuality of their own. They had not assimilated what they had been compelled to practice.

Now in play the child realizes for himself his spontaneity—his arbitrariness and caprice. In its positive phase he produces whatever his fancy dictates; in its negative phase he destroys again what he has made, or whatever is his own. He realizes the depth of originality which his will-power involves—the power to create and the power to destroy. This is the root of his personality—the source of his freedom. Deprive a child of his play and you produce arrested development in his character. Nor can his play be rationalized by the kindergarten so as to dispense with the utterly spontaneous untamed play of the child wherein he gives full scope to his fancy and caprice. Even in the kindergarten, just as in the school, there must be prescription.

But the kindergarten wisely and gently controls in such a manner as to leave room for much of the pure spontaneity of play. It prescribes tasks but preserves the form of play as much as is possible. If the child were held to a rigid accountability in the kindergarten for the performance of his task, it would then cease to be play and become labor.—Labor performs the prescribed task. Play prescribes for itself. The attempt to preserve the form of self-prescription for the child in his tasks, is what saves the kindergarten from being a positive injury to the child at his tender

and immature age. It is the preservation of the form of play and at the same time the induction of the substance of prescription that constitutes what is new and wonderful in FROEBEL's method of instruction. There is a gentle insinuation of habits of attention, of self-control, of concert of action, of considerateness towards others, of desire to participate in the common result of the school, that succeeds in accomplishing this necessary change of heart in the child—from selfishness to self-renunciation,—without sacrificing his spontaneity so much as is done in the old-fashioned primary school. And it gets large measures of the benefits of the school, that the child would have lost had he remained at home in the family. The child, too, at this period of his life had begun to experience a hunger for the more substantial things of social life which the school alone could satisfy. How happy therefore, is the discovery of FROEBEL in this place to give the child what is substantial without roughly crushing out his individuality at the same time!

After we have decided in the affirmative the essential questions relative to the reasonableness of the course of study and discipline of the kindergarten; its suitability to the age of the children, its effect upon the education that follows it, we come to the subsidiary questions regarding expense, training of teachers, and details of management. These questions are not important unless the decision is reached that the kindergarten theory is substantially correct. If it is found to be (as we have decided it to be) a valuable adjunct to the school; then we must solve the practical problems of how to introduce it into the public-school system. The problem is how to meet the expense. If the traditional form of the kindergarten be adopted—that of a teacher to each dozen of pupils—and that number forming an isolated kindergarten—the annual cost of tuition would be from fifty to one hundred dollars per pupil, a sum too extravagant to be paid by any public-school system. The average tuition per pupil in public-school systems of the United States ranges from \$12.00 to \$20.00 for the year's schooling of 200 days. No school board would be justified in expending five times as much, per pupil for tuition in a kindergarten, as it expended for the tuition of a pupil in the primary or grammar school.

It is necessary to limit the number of pupils per teacher, to twelve or twenty, while the primary school can manage fifty or seventy, it becomes likewise necessary to invent a system of cheaper teachers. At once, the Lancasterian, or Monitorial, system suggests itself as a model for the organization of the cheap kindergarten. The kindergarten shall be a large one—located in a room of ample size to hold five or ten sets of tables, each set to have fifteen children attending it, and presided over by a novice teacher—the whole room being under the charge of a thoroughly competent teacher—one of experience and skill and well-versed in the theory and practice of FROEBEL's system. The director of the kindergarten must be a well-paid teacher, receiving as much as the principal of a small primary school. Her assistants, the "novitiate teachers," are learners of the system. The first year they shall be volunteers and receive no salary; the second year, or as soon as they pass the first examination in theory and practice of the kindergarten, they are to receive a small salary as "paid assistants." After a year's service as paid assistants (or after a

longer time if not yet qualified) they may pass a second examination and if found competent, be appointed directors, and receive a higher salary. In the St. Louis kindergartens, the number of sixty pupils entitles the director to one paid assistant, and there is one additional assistant appointed for each thirty pupils additional. Thus there would be a director and four paid assistants if the kindergarten had 150 pupils. The director would receive \$350.00 per annum and each paid assistant \$125.00 per annum. The cost of tuition based on teachers' salaries—would be \$850.00 per annum for the 150 pupils—being less than \$6.00 per annum for each.

Besides the salaried teachers of the kindergarten, it is expected that there will be an equal or greater number of volunteers. In order to make it worth while for volunteers to join the system as well as for the improvement of the salaried teachers, it is necessary to have two persons of very superior ability, as general supervisors, that can give instruction, once a week, on the theory and practice (the "gifts and occupations") of FROEBEL's system.

The young woman will find so much culture of thought to be derived from the discussion of FROEBEL's insights and theories—and so much peculiarly-fitting experience from her daily class in the kindergarten—experience that will prove invaluable to her as a wife and mother—that she will serve her apprenticeship in the kindergarten gladly, though it be no part of her intention to follow teaching as a vocation.

It is a part of the system as an adjunct to the public schools, to educate the young women in these valuable matters relating to the early training of children. I have thought that the benefit derived by the two hundred young women at work in the St. Louis kindergartens from the lectures of Miss BLOW to be of sufficient value to compensate the city for the entire cost of the kindergartens. A nobler and more enlightened womanhood will result, and the family will prove a better nurture for the child.

Here we come upon the practical difficulty. If the teachers are no better than the average mothers in our families, if they are not better than the average primary teacher, it is evident that the system of FROEBEL cannot induce any great reform in society. "It is useless to expect social regeneration from persons who are not themselves regenerated."

In our St. Louis work,—now counting fifty separate daily sessions and enrolling over six thousand children in the year 1878-79—we have been very fortunate in having a lady of great practical sagacity, of profound and clear insight, and of untiring energy, to organize our kindergartens and instruct our teachers. Her (Miss SUSAN E. BLOW's) disinterested and gratuitous services have been the means of securing for us a system that now furnishes its own directors, assistants, and supervisors.

There is another important point connected with the economy of the kindergarten. The session should not last over three hours for the children of this age. Hence each room permits two different sessions to be held in it per day: one in the morning and one in the evening, thus accommodating double the number of pupils. In some cases where the teacher has attained experience and strength sufficient, she teaches in both sessions and receives a higher grade of salary for the work (directors in the St. Louis kindergartens receive \$600 for two sessions per day and

\$350 for one session; paid assistants receive \$125 for one session and \$200 per annum for two daily sessions).

The furniture of the kindergarten is made up of small single chairs and small tables, each table capable of accommodating two children—all the furniture being movable; the surface of the table being marked off into divisions one inch square. It is better to use the small tables than large ones which will accommodate a whole class; for the small ones may be combined into large ones of any desirable size and may be easily arranged into any shape or figure and placed in any part of the room by the children themselves. It is necessary to use the floor of the room during one exercise each day for the games (when all the children are collected "on the circle"); at this time it may be desirable to move the small tables to the sides of the room, and with small tables this can be easily accomplished. Again, in the absence of one of the teachers, it may become necessary to combine two classes into one, uniting two tables. The small tables are therefore an important item in the economy of the kindergarten.

With these suggestions, I leave the subject, believing that they are sufficient to justify the directors of public schools in making the kindergarten a part of the system. The advantage to the community in utilizing the age from four to six in training the hand and eye, in developing habits of cleanliness, politeness, self-control, urbanity, industry; in training the mind to understand numbers and geometric forms, to invent combinations of figures and shapes, and to represent them with the drawing-pencil—these and other valuable lessons in combination with their fellow-pupils, and obedience to the rule of their superiors—above all, the useful suggestions as to methods of instruction which will come from the kindergarten and penetrate the methods of the other schools, will I think, ultimately prevail in securing to us the establishment of this beneficent institution.

At the conclusion of Mr. HARRIS's remarks, the discussion upon the subject was opened by LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Philadelphia, who spoke in substance as follows:

Scientists tell us that the primary cell is so small that the finest microscope can not discover whether it belongs to the vegetable or animal world; no searching can find out whether within that almost infinitesimal space lies hidden the exquisite beauty of the blossom, the green leafiness of the forest tree, or that bundle of possibilities—a human being. So in the infant, sleeps the germs of after character, whether good or evil, for the little child is father of the man or mother of the woman that shall be. Then is it not plain that in this matter of education we must begin at the beginning? If the structure be unsteady, it is the foundation we seek to make secure; if our school system does not accomplish all, it should let us commence to repair its defects in the primary methods of instruction.

Just here, let me say, that if at any time during this discussion I may seem to be severe upon the faults of our common schools, it is simply

because I love them so well that I would have them faultless. If I dwell upon what they have failed to do, rather than upon what they have done, it is only because I am so earnest a believer in them, that, seeing their short-comings, I speak out that I may urge a remedy. If it were otherwise, I should not care to condemn. I should choose, indeed, to praise, since that is always pleasanter, and the Kindergarten needs not the aid of the public school, its success is already assured without that; it is the public school which needs the Kindergarten, and because of that I plead.

That there is a want of harmony in our present method of education—the intellect being too often cultivated at the expense of the physical powers, and the small modicum of moral training given being so abstract as to prove quite ineffectual when subjected to the strain of real life and its temptations—but few educators will deny, while the people, the parents are clamoring for a change in our course of study, that their children may be better fitted for their work in the world. These are serious defects, but the remedy is at hand, for these, which are the weaknesses of the old mode of instruction, are the strong points of the New Education. Incorporate FROEBEL's idea into our present method, and the evil is overcome; make the Kindergarten the foundation of our free-school system, then make the system consistent from beginning to end, and we shall have a system as perfect and complete as it is symmetrical. But this can not be easily done. It will cost us much money; yet, is it not worth while? Are not human beings of more value than silver and gold? Is it not cheaper for the State to educate the children of the poor and ignorant into noble women and men than to support them as paupers, or punish them as criminals? And this, I claim, the Kindergarten, supplemented by the public schools, can do. Does this seem like an exaggeration? Permit me then to review briefly some of the leading points of the New Education, that I may prove what I have affirmed.

Beginning by recognizing the fact that the destiny of each soul is activity; that it was sent upon earth, first, to conquer itself, and then conquer the world, FROEBEL goes on to assert, that "man is the child of nature, the child of man, and the child of God;" and that "education can only fulfil its mission when it views the human being in this three-fold relation, and takes each into account;" and upon this assertion is based the method of the Kindergarten. First, as the child of nature, the little one's physical wants are attended to; it is made comfortable, primarily, that it may be happy; secondarily, that its bodily development may be unhindered. Not only this, but the games and plays are so managed that they tend to give still greater suppleness and vigor to the little bodies, as well as to afford plenty of healthful exercise, while the gifts and occupations train the tiny fingers to a dexterity which is simply marvellous in such young children; and thus begins industrial education. Even at the tender age of three, the young soul has already entered upon its mission, having learned to control, in some degree, its physical faculties, and with its first finished bit of work, it has commenced to conquer the world. Second, as the child of man, the human being steps out of the circle of necessity into the realm of freedom, and becomes conscious of self. Here begins, mainly, his mental activity; here, too, is

the point of departure between the new education and the old, for he is not taught to read; he has no books. FROEBEL would have the child's knowledge—like its consciousness, begin within the narrow bounds of its own personality and radiate outward, instead of seeking to grasp that which the newly-awakened intellect is too weak to comprehend. He would have them know of the living world around them, before they are set to study the dead knowledge stored in books. He would develop the mental faculties in their natural order; first, the perceptive, and then the reasoning. And so the Kindergartner takes up things—not to tell the child about them—she is too wise for that; nor even to show them to the child—she is too kind; she grants at once the privilege (dear even to grown people) of handling, and places in the child's own hands the object to be studied; lets him test it as he will, and there is very little which can escape these keen young senses, sharpened as they are, by well-directed though unconscious education. Then the little ones are allowed to tell (they are always pleased to impart their new-found knowledge) what they have learned. What training is here for those eyes of the soul—the perceptive faculties; what cultivation of habits of accurate observation, close attention, and comparison; and what command of language, only those who are familiar with the results of the New Education can know, and this without the aid of books at all. Then, too, the creative faculty is aroused; invention is encouraged; the imagination stimulated, and a love for beauty, symmetry, and law inculcated, along with habits of neatness, order, regularity, and dispatch. All this is easily attained by the use of the gifts and occupations, while the plays afford opportunities for the teaching of both manners and morals.

All thinkers, from PLATO down, have agreed that the teacher must know something of the nature of the human being, and consider his powers and limitations before he can efficiently train him, but FROEBEL did more than this—went further; he wisely remembered that the human being is but a child at first, and so studied the child nature as no educator before or since has ever done, and it was because he observed that the earliest manifestations of self-activity take the form of play that he incorporated plays and games into the Kindergarten. It is true that these have been the subject of much unreasonable criticism—the occasion of much absurd opposition; but the criticism is readily refuted, the opposition is easily met. For instance, it is objected that play, real play, is entirely spontaneous, the outcome of caprice, and that if it be guided, or in any way controlled, it is no longer play. That sounds well, but it is not true; it is an idea, not a fact. For children are always more or less confined in their games to certain surroundings or appliances, limited more or less by certain restrictions or circumstances, even if they play by themselves; and if they play with others, they must, of necessity, be subjected in a greater or less degree to the will of their playmates. What matters it then if these playmates be older than themselves, and those who, in their turn, are guided by motives higher than mere caprice? Children delight in the companionship of grown-up people, and are never happier than when those who are wise enough and good enough to become as little children, join them in their games. Besides, their plays

are generally imitations of the scenes or actions of real life, often of its follies, sometimes of its vices. The children would enter as heartily and happily into new plays which represent pure and pleasant things as into the old games which are usually handed down from one generation of children to another, and are never entirely spontaneous. And as for any restraining or refining influence, which the presence of the teacher may give, it is all clear gain to the joy of the occasion, for roughness does not add to happiness, and boisterousness is no indication of mirth.

But the child must learn to feel that it is a link in the great chain of humanity, and "to forget self in doing loving acts for others," and education has not fulfilled its mission till it remembers that the human being is the child of God, as well as the child of man and of nature, and so takes into training the higher faculties—the moral; then will the full chord of the child's being be struck; then, and not till then, will the harmony be perfect. But this training, too, must be concrete, instead of abstract, practical, not theoretical, for the moral, like the mental and physical powers, can only be strengthened by exercise—a fact too often forgotten by the instructors of youth, who think (it would seem) that to store the mind of their pupils with good precepts and great truths, should result in pure and perfect characters. "You can not," says FROEBEL, "do heroic deeds in words, or by talking of them, but you can educate a child to self-activity and to work, and through them to a faith which will not be dead," and so he has given abundant opportunities in his system for the exercise of the moral powers, and every condition favorable to the acquisition of good habits as a basis for all the virtues; but there is no memorizing of commandments, and no repetition of words whatever. Thus, the child in the Kindergarten is not constantly told to be good; he is inspired to be so by loving interest and unfailing sympathy; he is not perpetually urged to curb his temper and control his will, but he is helped to do it with gentle firmness and unfaltering patience. He does not hear the words of the Bible continually on the lips of his teacher, but the truths of the Bible grow into his heart, and its principles become a part of his character. He is not commanded to love his Creator, but the little child, loving and beloved, takes in very naturally and gladly the idea of God; his young soul leaps lightly the chasm between the seen and unseen, and loves with the same love, trusts with the same trust—the father and mother on earth, and Him, who is both Father and Mother in Heaven. Nor is this all; accustomed from the first to manifest their love in deeds rather than in words, such children never know lip service, but pass at once into the higher life of those whose good works shall glorify the Father, thus proving FROEBEL's assertion: "I have based my education on religion, and it must lead to religion."

Ours is a generation, sound in neither body, mind, nor soul, and the next is no better; and even the most conservative are beginning to recognize the fact that our idea of education hitherto has been too much confined to the cultivation of the intellect alone, and already the reaction has set in—in favor of some degree of physical culture, while our methods of mental training are constantly improving; but of moral or religious teaching in our public schools, we have as yet but the vaguest idea. How

could we? Great problems, like that of church and State perplex us; old war-cries, such as the "Bible in the public schools," sound again, and bitter sectarian feuds start up at the mere mention. But the Kindergarten arouses no conflict of authority; asserts no dogma; promulgates no creed; and here the children of the Christian and the Hebrew, of the Catholic and Protestant can gather together to gain that knowledge, self-reliance, and self-control which shall lead up to true and noble living; for this teaching, though marvellous for its symmetry, its insight into the needs and capabilities of the child-nature, is, after all, greatest in its method of educating the moral powers; most wonderful in its system of development of the higher nature.

We have fallen upon degenerate days, when fraud and corruption sit in high places, and evil walks unabashed in the broad daylight, and our country needs the clear, clean consciences, the upright souls, the iron wills of earlier days, and what shall give them to us again? Education, for the elements of power lie dormant in every new-born soul, and only as they are trained for good or evil shall they ripen into deeds of honor, or deeds of dishonor. Grant, then, a broader, deeper, earlier culture, and the best first. The Jesuits were accustomed to declare that if they could have the entire charge of a child during the first seven years of its life, they were willing to relinquish him to other training; secure in the conviction that their principles were too firmly implanted ever to be eradicated; and yet, our public system of instruction (except in St. Louis) provides for no training before the child is five years old, allowing, nay, in large cities, compelling the large majority of those who attend the common schools to spend the first two of the best educational years of their life, under the worst of educational influences—those of the street, and of ignorant and often vicious homes, and then placing them, during the last two of these precious years, most frequently under the teaching of beginners—men, girls, and boys, often giddy and thoughtless, always inexperienced and immature. What blindness, what folly is this? Children have a right to the best which we can give them, and let us not grudge the time or money it may cost; then if worst comes to worst, and we must economize, better, by far, wait till they are older, when they have some power of protecting themselves against unwise or inefficient instruction, than to place these young impressionable beings under the blighting, deforming, dwarfing influences of poor teaching during their tender years. It is true that the ideal teacher—one not only born to the vocation, but who has added to genius both education and experience, is not often ready to lay all these gifts at the feet of a child; it is only those who, like FROEBEL, remember that it was the Great Teacher who said: "Except ye become as one of these, ye can not enter the Kingdom."

Thus, the true Kindergartner must have had soul-culture, as well as mental and physical training to fit her for her work, and such, and such alone, are the teachers our little ones should have. Then give them three years, or even two of the Kindergarten, with its marvellous method, which develops naturally and symmetrically the threefold nature of the child, which trains at the same time the head and the hand, the senses and the soul, which combines in such just proportions, theory and prac-

tice, knowing and doing, educates with equal skill the perceptive and reflective faculties, the intellect and the conscience; and which, while it represses the lower nature, the animal instincts, arouses the higher, the spiritual forces, to their fullest, noblest exercise. For in no other way can humanity hope to attain to that inner and outer harmony of existence which makes this world the heaven for which we long, and this life the beginning of the life eternal.

Mr. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, admitted the value of kindergarten schools, and the application of FROEBEL's principles and methods for children under six years of age, but asked to have the advocates of this system mark out a practical course of study which can be adopted in the primary schools,—composed of children from six to ten years of age,—schools for children as they are now found in towns and cities.

Miss RUTH R. BURRITT, of Philadelphia, arose to answer the question, "How the Kindergarten principles can be carried into the common-school work." She had taught in the primary schools many years before she entered the kindergarten field, and she was sure that FROEBEL's principles could be and should be carried into the lower grades of common-school work, but also into the high schools and normal schools. First the thing, then the picture, then the word. The most experienced and most highly-cultivated teachers should be placed in charge of the little children.

United States School Commissioner JOHN EATON, protested against methods being used in primary schools, but endorsed them in the college. He insisted that FROEBEL himself simply protested against university methods being applied to children. He believed that the late Prof. HENRY had touched the key-note when he agreed that education in its methods should be adjusted to the condition of the child; that kindergarten methods should not be carried to the high school. He believed in the "historic" development of a subject: what is true of the race is true of the individual.

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Massachusetts, did not believe that there could be found in all Europe a "simon pure" kindergarten, carried on according to FROEBEL's ideal as interpreted by the leading kindergartners in this country.

Mr. SHELDON wanted to know whether the method of SOCRATES was entirely dispensed with in the kindergarten? Was there not, he asked, a period, when, like SOCRATES, the teachers found it necessary to resort to the catechetical method?

Miss RUTH R. BURRITT—"No! SOCRATES never attended a kindergarten."

A. L. WADE, EDWARD A. SINGER, and Miss MARIA L. SANFORD, continued the discussion.

The President appointed the following committee on the nomination of officers:

JNO. IRVIN, of Indiana; Z. RICHARDS, of D. C.; RUTH MORRIS, of Ohio; LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Penn., and A. L. WADE, of West Va.

Adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30, 1879.

The Department met at 3 P. M. A. L. WADZ, Superintendent of Monongalia County, W. Va., read the following paper on

A GRADUATING SYSTEM FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

The work of properly educating the masses is as purely a benevolent work as that of preaching the gospel; and the genuine teacher should regard his calling as truly sacred as that of the Christian minister. Actuated by the belief that this is a benevolent work, men of thorough education and broad culture, have turned aside from the pleasing prospects of amassing fortunes, and are devoting themselves to the work of improving our great system of free schools. More than a quarter of a million of progressive men and women, many of them as unselfish as the patriots of ancient or modern times, are annually employed as teachers in the public schools of the nation. And although they are often depressed and discouraged by overwork and underpay, they move steadily onward shedding light over the land. To help this cause and these teachers we have met in the "City of Brotherly Love."

If, when the National Educational Association is ended, and we return to our several fields of labor, we carry with us help for the cause which we have espoused, then this meeting is a success, otherwise it is a failure. If we can produce a plan that will increase the interest of the people in public schools, a device that will enable pupils to do more work in less time, a system that will increase the teacher's power and at the same time lessen his labor; in a word, if we can do something that will increase the intelligence of the masses and thereby diminish the illiteracy of the nation, then will the friends of humanity approve our work, and call us good and faithful servants. And can we not accomplish these things? I have a strong faith in our ability to do so.

I am aware that this language may be laughed at by teachers who may properly be termed educational doubters, skeptics, unbelievers, infidels,—men who believe that there can be greater progress in any other pursuit than in the profession of the teacher. To prove that inventions and improvements to aid the work of the public schools, in the nineteenth century, are equal to improvements in industrial pursuits, would perhaps, be a difficult undertaking, but to prove that the *possibility* of inventions and improvements in educational work is *less* than in other pursuits is quite as difficult.

Many of the teachers connected with the common schools, having no libraries, reading no journals, consulting no authors, attending no institutes, frequently changing places, but never changing plans, see no prospects for improvement in primary school work. But the progressive educator, standing abreast of the thought of the present age, sees, in the near future, improved systems producing harmonious action in all elementary schools—labor-saving devices which are to be to the school-room what the

mowing-machine is to the farm, the sewing-machine to the family, the power-loom to the factory, the locomotive to travel, and the telegraph to the transmission of news. These thoughts may be regarded as visionary, but they are the product of mature deliberation.

The improvements made in primary-school work, within the memory of the older inhabitants in almost every part of our country, give great encouragement to the inventive teacher. I well remember the country school of forty years ago. No arrangements for ventilation, no shutters or blinds for windows, no improved seats or desks, no blocks or black-boards, no globes or outline maps, no charts or pictures on the walls, no class bells, clocks, or thermometers. The schoolmaster entered upon his duties, armed like Moses with rod in hand, and well do I remember that he was skilled in the use of it, for he inflicted a greater number of plagues upon his pupils than the great lawgiver brought upon the Egyptians. Having no uniform series of school books, each pupil brought such books as his parents chanced to provide for him, and said his lessons alone. Small scholars were daily placed upon tall benches to swing their feet and bend their backs for the space of eight hours. Cheerfulness was banished from the school-room, laughing was regarded as great a crime as lying, and was punished with equal severity. The course of study was made up of three R's, viz.: "Readin, Ritin, and Rithmetic," and these were necessarily, under the circumstances, but imperfectly studied. By way of contrast, let us glance at the schools of the rural districts of the present day; houses of uniform comfort and architectural beauty, cultured teachers with cheerful faces, improved plans and appliances to aid the pupil in his pursuit of knowledge, and I am sorry that I cannot truthfully add, a uniform course of studies, embracing all the primary branches, completed by all the pupils before they leave school.

The lack of uniformity in the course of studies in the common schools of this country is attracting the attention of the friends of popular education, not only in the United States but also in Europe. The French Commissioners of Education at our Centennial Exposition, after studying carefully our system of public instruction as presented by the several States of the Union, in their report to the people on the other side of the sea, make this declaration: "*The courses of study in ungraded schools are still in the tentative period, not to say in a state of chaos.*" So far as I am aware this declaration has never been contradicted by an intelligent journalist. Indeed the leading journals of Education, throughout the land, have been laboring to impress this same fact upon the minds of educators, and to enforce the necessity for some great system, to harmonize these chaotic elements.

As an index to the sentiments of the press upon this subject I make a brief extract from one of the best journals,—*Barnes's Educational Monthly*. In a leading editorial on "Our Common-School System," in the February number, the Editor says: "In a multitude of cases what a child studies depends upon the blind judgment of parents, or the momentary convenience or caprice of teachers. The so-called common-school course is no course at all. We most earnestly commend any superintendent or teacher

who can suggest any way by which order can be obtained and the confusion now existing avoided." I could bring scores of witnesses to testify to the truth of these declarations of the French Commissioners, and of the Editor of *Barnes's Educational Monthly*, but it is unnecessary to spend further time in proving a point that has never been contested.

The unanimous verdict of all who have studied our free-school system, is, that the lack of uniformity in the course of studies in the common schools of the country, and more especially the absence of any plan for inducing pupils to take up and *complete* a course, is the lame limb in our free-school work which has produced so much limping all over the land.

I have made the study of this subject a speciality for a quarter of a century, and propose, as a remedy for this lameness in our educational body, the universal adoption of

A GRADUATING SYSTEM FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

This system is simply the application to country schools of a plan which, centuries ago, was adopted in universities and colleges, and which succeeded so well that it was afterward introduced into academies and seminaries, and in more modern times has found its way into the high schools of cities and towns. Why a system, which had been so thoroughly tested and so generally approved in schools of high order, was never until very recently applied to elementary schools, is a question which I leave for some one else to answer.

I give it as my deliberate conclusion, drawn from observation, that the introduction of the Graduating System into the common schools of the country, under the management of an efficient superintendency, will produce as great a revolution in our educational system, as that produced upon travel on land and sea by the application of steam. One of the secret sources of power in the graduating system, is the increased interest which it produces in parents and pupils. The June Number of the *Educational News-Gleaner* contains this "gem" of thought:—"A child can learn infinitely faster when interested than when indifferent." If this be true, then the thing necessary to increase the pupil's power to learn, is to increase his interest. There is no growth either in brain power or in mental or heart culture without interest. No danger of damage to the pupil if he is interested and has plenty of pure air and exercise. Interest is the lubricating material which prevents mental "wear and tear." We *seldom* become tired when interested, but are *always* tired when uninterested. Interest is the product of an object in view, and the graduating system has an object—the completion of a course of study. The long hours which a young man spends with his lady love seem to him but moments, and the seven years which Jacob served for Rachel seemed to him but a few days.

In order to give progressive workers in elementary education a clear conception of the origin and operation of the system under consideration, I propose to speak of

THE GRADUATING SYSTEM FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLS—ITS ORIGIN, PROGRESS, AND PROSPECTS FOR UNIVERSAL ADOPTION.

This system had its origin in 1876, in Monongalia County, West Virginia, a county bordering on Mason and Dixon's line.

I propose to give a brief statement of the circumstances under which this system originated, and to show that its introduction into the free schools of Monongalia County, produced an educational revival, unparalleled in the history of primary-school work.

I propose to prove from official reports of superintendents of several counties into which the system has been introduced that, although it is still in its infancy—in a fragmentary state, it carries with it the spirit of revival.

I propose to show that this system from its origin, has been endorsed by the leading educators and the public press of West Virginia.

I propose to prove by the minutes of the State Teachers' Association of West Virginia, that, in 1877, a resolution was adopted by that body, recommending the system to county superintendents throughout the State for their adoption.

I propose to show by State papers that the General Superintendent of Public Instruction in West Virginia, in his last annual report, recommends that the system be incorporated into the school law of the State.

I propose to show from extracts from letters written by men who stand at the very front as educators in the United States, that they give the system their hearty approval.

And, lastly, I propose to show that the system has been, within the last year, reviewed editorially in a number of the leading educational journals of the nation, and that almost without exception they have endorsed the system and have recommended its universal adoption.

And now in beginning this point of my subject I will state

HOW THE GRADUATING SYSTEM WAS INTRODUCED INTO COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

In the autumn of 1873, I was employed by Superintendent H. L. Cox, to visit the schools of Monongalia County, West Virginia. Most of my work as an educator, previous to that time, had been confined to the school-room.

I had long entertained the belief that the common-school course of study could be *completed* by the masses attending the primary schools of the nation, in less time than is now devoted to obtaining an imperfect knowledge of a *few* of the branches constituting this course. I resolved that while visiting the schools of the county, I would study the secret springs of action in school life, and try to devise a plan to facilitate primary school work, as broad in its application as the system which seeks to educate and to elevate the race. To this end I began to study the principles which prompt pupils to action, and the motives which move men to make sacrifices for the education of their offspring.

I made up my mind to visit two schools each day, and to hold an educational meeting each evening in one of the school-houses. To these evening meetings I invited teachers, pupils, and patrons of the schools.

I found that the greatest hindrance to the success of the schools, was lack of books and a want of disposition on the part of pupils to take up a sufficient number of branches. In many of the schools no subject beyond arithmetic had been introduced, although the school law of the State requires that English Grammar, History, and Geography shall be taught. I did what I could in each school to aid the teacher in the organization of classes embracing all the branches, and each evening in the educational meeting I reported the names of all schools in which such classes had been organized, and the name of the teacher in charge of each. These evening reports became a matter of public interest in every community in the county. Teachers, pupils, and patrons of schools having such classes, came from all directions to attend our meetings and hear their schools reported. Classes were organized in many schools in advance of the superintendent's visits, and he was notified of the fact and requested to report them. Thinking that I had touched the true key to success, by making public the work of each school, I published at the end of the school term in the *Morgantown Post*, a list of schools, in which classes had been formed in all the free-school branches and the name of the teacher in charge of each. The county contained at that time seventy-eight country schools, and thirty-two of these were reported in the published list—the "*roll of honor*." Quite a number of teachers whose names had not been published, informed me soon after the publication of the list, that they did not intend to be left off the roll of honor next year. I observed that teachers felt more interest in having their names published than pupils and patrons felt in having their schools published. This convinced me that the most effectual way to reach pupils and patrons of our public schools, is in some way, to make public the individual work of those pupils who are most deserving of praise. God has wisely implanted in all of us a desire to have our names and the names of our kindred and friends mentioned in connection with honorable positions. One of the highest rewards which we can offer to the diligent and obedient pupil is to *honor* him, and it is no small degree of punishment to the slothful and disobedient to let him go *unhonored*. Believing that it would aid teachers in organizing classes in the higher branches, I resolved that in the evening educational meetings which I proposed to hold while visiting the schools of the county the next winter, I would make public the names of all pupils who would take up the entire course of study.

In the autumn of 1874, when I began visiting schools, I found the complete course had been taken up in nearly every school. I was delighted with the progress made in this matter, and I began to inquire for the pupils who had taken up the full course, intending to enter their names on my Journal for the purpose of reporting them, when to my surprise I found that scarcely any of them had taken up more than two studies. One had taken up arithmetic and geography, another had taken up arithmetic and English grammar, and still another arithmetic and history, according as they had "*likes and dislikes*" for these branches. Feeling that I had not yet accomplished my purpose, I next undertook to organize in each school a class of advanced pupils who would agree to take up all the free-school branches. This was thought to be, as one who entered

the class expressed it, "no fool of a job," and yet, by the aid of teachers, I succeeded from day to day in most of the schools. In our educational meetings which were held each evening, I reported the names of the pupils who had entered the classes in each of the schools visited during the day, and in other schools near by. The relatives and friends of the pupils composing these classes were much pleased with these reports, and in most of our meetings the greater part of the audience was made up of relatives and friends.

Some of our best teachers entertained fears that at the close of the school term the special interest would cease, and most of the members of these classes would backslide, and thus render it necessary for us the next term to "do our first works." I soon became satisfied that these fears were well founded. Pupils had entered these classes supposing that the termination of the present school term would release them from all obligations. Very few of them had made up their minds to *complete* the course of study. In order to obviate this difficulty, I undertook to organize in each school a class of volunteers who would agree not only to *take up* the free-school course, but to *complete it*.

Pupils very naturally asked, before giving their names as volunteers, how *soon* is this work to be completed, and who is to judge whether or not it is *well done*? I replied that each one would have his own time in which to complete the course, and we would have to trust to the honor of each one to do this well. I organized two classes upon the above conditions, and in our educational meeting in the evening I stated my plan. But it created no interest. No one could see either point or edge to it. It fell "flat as a flounder." I myself felt that it was a failure, and for the first time I wished that somebody else was superintending the schools. After the meeting adjourned I retired, at the house of a friend, but found no rest. I was full of tossings to and fro. I thought of returning home and resigning, but that looked like cowardice. I thought of the pleasant places occupied by presidents and professors in colleges, and principals and teachers in high schools, and I almost envied them their pleasures. I remembered noticing not long before, upon the wall of a parlor in West Virginia, a diploma, belonging to a young lady, a graduate of the high school of Fort Wayne, Indiana—my native State. Then the inquiry came into my mind; if they graduated pupils in *high* schools, why not graduate them in *low* schools? In a moment the darkness fled from my mind,—the light flashed and I fancied it was day. I felt sure I had made the discovery. I said we will bring all the plans and appliances from the higher schools, and apply them to the primary schools.

We will have annual examinations, and commencement exercises, and we will grant diplomas, and form alumni associations.

Early next morning I entered upon my duties with renewed energies, and undertook to organize by the aid of the teacher in each school, a class of volunteers who would agree not only to take up the free-school course, but to complete it in a given length of time, and to pass a public examination in the same. I found very few pupils who were advanced far enough to enable them to complete the course during that term, so I proposed that a public examination be held by the county superintendent in

each district (not sub-district) in the county, at the end of the school term of the next year, and that each pupil who should pass such examination creditably, would receive a handsome diploma or honorary certificate, signed by the county superintendent and the teacher of the school in which he had completed the course. This class was termed

THE GRADUATING CLASS OF 1876.

I found, however, that pupils who were willing to enter this class were not numerous. Many parents expressed their doubts about the propriety of their children making such pledges. The teachers, almost without exception, and the more intelligent people, gave the plan their hearty coöperation.

At the ensuing election, held August 13, 1875, I was, without opposition, elected county superintendent, which I regarded not only a compliment to myself, but an endorsement of the graduating system which I had inaugurated.

In the autumn of 1875, as soon as the schools were fully in operation, I commenced my visitations, taking with me a sample of our free-school diploma, a handsome certificate 9 by 14 inches, neatly framed, which I exhibited in each school. I found that the graduating system was rapidly growing in popular favor, and so I undertook to organize in each school, where there was material for doing so, not only a class for 1876, but also a class for 1877. Our educational meetings which were held each evening had, in the meantime, so increased in interest that school-houses were insufficient for the accommodation of our vast audiences, and trustees of churches opened their houses of worship for our accommodation. I held while visiting that winter, forty-three of these meetings—twenty-seven in churches. Numerous topics connected with popular education were discussed at these meetings, and addresses were delivered by professors in the University, ministers of the Gospel, teachers, farmers, and mechanics. I availed myself each evening of the opportunity to report the names of those who had entered the classes of 1876 and 1877. I proposed to publish these names in the county newspaper, and a spirited emulation arose between the schools of each district, and an equal rivalry between the several districts, as to which school in each district, or which district in the county should excel in the number and quality of its graduates. Teachers, pupils, and patrons of the schools became recruiting agents to obtain volunteers, and not unfrequently the ranks were increased by pupils publicly entering the classes at our educational meetings, and almost every mail brought me letters giving names to be added to the classes.

In addition to the classes of 1876 and 1877, I suggested that each teacher form two other classes, so that each school would have four classes, and most of them did so. Pupils unprepared to enter either of these classes compose the Preparatory Department. One of the grandest results of this classification, was

THE EFFECT PRODUCED UPON PUPILS WHO ENTERED THE GRADUATING CLASSES.

They had voluntarily consented to do a certain amount of work in a given length of time, and their work would be publicly tested. Every student of human nature could anticipate the result. Pupils began to count the months, and weeks, and days, in which this work was to be accomplished. They were found numbering the pages in their history, geography, and English grammar, and counting the problems in arithmetic, in order to ascertain how many pages should be studied, and how many problems solved each day, in order to complete these studies, and review, before examination day. The work of governing was greatly reduced, thereby giving the teacher more time for his legitimate work—teaching.

In order that all may understand what I mean by the free-school course, I will say that the school law of West Virginia prescribes

A COURSE OF STUDY IN THE FREE SCHOOLS.

Section 11 of the school law reads as follows; "In the primary schools there shall be taught Orthography, Reading, Penmanship, Arithmetic, English Grammar, History, Geography, and such other branches as the Board of Education may direct."

No College or University has a course of study more clearly defined than the law prescribes for our free schools.

Toward the close of the school term the chief topic of conversation in each community was the

FIRST ANNUAL DISTRICT EXAMINATION.

Unwilling to assume the responsibility of conducting these examinations without aid, I secured the services of Prof. H. L. Cox, Principal of the Morgantown Graded School; Prof. F. S. Lyon, Principal of Preparatory Department of West-Virginia University; and Prof. W. R. WHITE, late Superintendent of Free Schools of West Virginia. Our first examination was held the 25th of February, and the last one on the 11th of March, two being held each week. Each examination occupied one day, and a commencement exercise was held each evening. The county superintendent, aided by one or more of the Professors named above, conducted each examination. The teachers of the district graded each member of the class, and granted permission to the county superintendent to graduate those who were accounted worthy.

The evening exercises consisted of original and select orations, essays, and select reading by members of the class, address by one or more of the Professors above named, and the granting of diplomas by the county superintendent. Two hundred and sixty-one pupils had entered the class of 1876, and of this number, one hundred and ninety-six completed the course and received diplomas.

I quote from my report of 1876, in order to show the interest our people felt in these examinations: "With a single exception, the largest churches in the several districts were insufficient to accommodate, even during the day, the vast numbers who came to witness the examinations. And these were not disinterested spectators; they were our most intelli-

gent people—the cream of society—men and women who had sons, or daughters, or grand-children, or friends in the class, in whom they were deeply interested.”

About the first of September, 1876, we published

THE FIRST CATALOGUE OF THE FREE SCHOOLS OF MONONGALIA COUNTY,

a copy of which I have before me. This catalogue embraces the annual report of the County Superintendent, and a report from every school in the county.

Six hundred copies were published at a cost of sixty dollars; most of them were taken by teachers and pupils at cost, and the residue were distributed gratuitously by the county superintendent.

Each school occupies one page in the catalogue. The name of the school, the name of the teacher, number of youths entitled to attend, number of youths on teacher's roll, daily average attendance, daily per cent of attendance, branches taught, and number of pupils studying each branch, the names of graduates and undergraduates, all these points of interest are presented in the report of each school.

It is certainly strange that we have never before had any plan for presenting to the public in permanent form the individual work of each school. No volume of the same cost, except the Bible, is so interesting to the families of a county as the book that contains the names and grades of the children attending the public schools.

In the autumn of 1876, as soon as the schools were fully at work, I commenced my annual visits. Fears had been entertained by some that the members of these graduating classes would conclude that graduation meant an end to study. I was highly gratified to find that these fears were without foundation, and that at least ninety per cent of the members of these classes were in school, many of them pursuing studies beyond the free-school course. Desiring to give the young people the highest mental training that our free schools can possibly afford, I introduced a plan which gave a large number of them the privilege of

WRITING FOR THE PRESS AND SPEAKING FROM THE PLATFORM.

At each one of our educational meetings, at the request of the editors, a corresponding secretary for each of our county papers—the *Morgantown New Dominion* and the *Morgantown Post*—was appointed. Nearly one hundred of our young people have thus commenced to write for public papers. I held in each district in the county, for the benefit of these classes, after giving due notice of the same,

THE FIRST ANNUAL MEETINGS OF THE ALUMNI.

The exercises in each of these meetings consisted of original and select orations, essays, and select readings. No public meetings pertaining to our free-school work, have elicited more interest, or attracted larger crowds, than these. In order to secure a permanent organization of the alumni of each district, I provided ballots, and held an election at each meeting, for a President, Vice-President, and a Secretary. A gentleman to deliver an

oration and a lady to read an essay at the district examination were also chosen by ballot. These were also elected by the members of the alumni association from its own body.

From the reports of our first annual district alumni meetings, it appears, that more than eighty of the members of the class of 1876 embraced the opportunity to speak and read in the presence of large audiences. The self-possession shown by the members of the various classes in their performances, and in the election of officers, elicited universal commendation. The privilege of addressing popular assemblages, and reading to full houses, is not often given to the youth who attend our free schools. It is claimed by some that the ability to speak and read in public is possessed in a high degree by but few persons. If this be true, it is the more important that the schools in which the masses are educated, give opportunity for the development of this gift wherever it exists.

OUR SECOND ANNUAL DISTRICT EXAMINATIONS,

for the graduating class of 1877, were held at the end of the school term, and one hundred and ten pupils completed the course, and obtained diplomas. These were granted by the teachers present, on a scale from one to ten—five being medium and ten excellent. No pupil graduated whose average grade was not above seven. It was not expected that the class in the county this year would be as large as it was last year, as we had last year the cream produced by several years' work. Many persons at the close of the examinations in 1876, were of the opinion that in order to have graduates in 1877, it would be necessary to use "skimmed milk." Many of these, however, after witnessing the examinations of the classes of 1877, agree that "the graduates of this year are richer than last."

The attendance upon these examinations, both day and night, and the interest manifested by the masses in them, were quite equal to last year. The same may be said of our educational meetings which were held each evening while I was visiting schools. I held in the year including district alumni meetings and examinations,

FIFTY-TWO EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS

in the county—forty-two in churches, and ten in school-houses.

THE THIRD ANNUAL EXAMINATIONS

were held in the spring of 1878, and were no less interesting than those of previous years. Eighty-eight pupils completed the course, were examined, and graduated.

In order to show the interest felt in this cause by the people after testing the plan for three years, I make an extract from an editorial letter written by GEORGE W. ATKINSON, Esq., Editor of the *Daily and Weekly Standard*, of the city of Wheeling, after spending one week in this county, witnessing the examinations held at the close of the term, in a leading editorial, published in the *Standard* of March 4th, 1878, in speaking of the attendance upon these examinations, says: "Such crowds of people we have never seen assembled in the rural districts, even at barbecues, during political campaigns."

The fourth and last annual examinations held in March, 1879, were equally as well attended as those of former years. When this system was first introduced, and the first annual examinations were ended, some of my personal friends expressed the opinion that we should be unable to repeat them; that by the next year the novelty would be gone, and that we should neither have patrons nor pupils to attend them.

Experience, however, has proved that after four annual examinations, and three annual meetings of the alumni have been held and three annual catalogues have been published, the interest of the public in this system is undiminished.

I have observed with pleasure ever since the origin of this plan that

THE LEADING EDUCATORS OF WEST VIRGINIA HAVE HEARTILY ENDORSED THE GRADUATING SYSTEM.

I name a few prominent educators of West Virginia, who after witnessing the annual examinations and commencement exercises of our free schools have complimented the system.

Prof. W. R. WHITE, ex-State Superintendent of West Virginia.

Rev. J. R. THOMPSON, President of West-Virginia University.

Prof. H. L. COX, late Principal of Morgantown Graded School.

Prof. F. S. LYON, Vice-President of West-Virginia University.

Prof. F. H. CRAGO, Principal of Moundsville Graded School.

Prof. D. B. PURINTON, of Preparatory Department of West-Virginia University.

ITS ADOPTION HAS BEEN RECOMMENDED BY THE PRESS THROUGHOUT THE STATE.

My limited space will allow me to refer only to a few of the leading journals.

The following references to the editorial columns of three newspapers published in the city of Wheeling, having each a daily and weekly issue, and wielding a greater influence than any other three papers in the State, show, in a clear light, the opinion of the several editors.

The *Wheeling Intelligencer*, in its issue of December 27th, 1876, contains a leading editorial entitled "A Great Step Forward in Education in West Virginia," in which the graduating system as introduced into the free schools of Monongalia County is carefully reviewed, and its adoption throughout the State is earnestly recommended.

The *Wheeling Register* in its issue of November 18th, 1877, contains an editorial from which I extract the following:

"The proof of the pudding is in the eating. The value of Mr. WADK's plan has borne the test of experience. It is a laborious plan and need not be attempted by an ignorant, careless, or lazy superintendent. While it is like all valuable pieces of machinery, very simple, it needs brains, tact, and enthusiasm to cause it to run. Where all these qualities are possessed, this little piece of school machinery works as quietly, smoothly, and effectively as a Corliss engine."

The *Wheeling Standard*, in its issue of March 4th, 1878, contains an article on the graduating system, written by the editor, G. W. ATKINSON, Esq., after he had spent one week in our county, witnessing the annual examina-

ations and commencement exercises of our free schools, from which I make the following extract:

"We cannot recommend Mr. WADE's plan too highly. It is just the thing to bring our public schools up to the standard of usefulness and respectability which they were intended by the authors of the law to be. It is a common-sense plan, and wherever it has been introduced it works like a charm. * * * * After having witnessed the entire workings of the system inaugurated by Mr. WADE, we are now more than ever in favor of it, and sincerely hope that our State Superintendent will make it a part of his next report to the Legislature, asking its adoption."

The Parkersburg *State Journal* says:

"This system, if adopted throughout the State, would in a few years cause West Virginia to rival Massachusetts."

The West-Virginia (Weekly) *Journal of Education*, published at Morgantown, in Monongalia County, is the earnest advocate of this system. The editor, Rev. J. R. THOMPSON—the youngest University President on the continent, but one of the most progressive educators in the nation—has, in public and in private, from the platform and through the press, urged the universal adoption of the graduating system. As President THOMPSON has attended more of our annual examinations and seen more of the operations of this system than any man, except the county superintendent, his testimony is worthy of great weight. I make an extract from a leading editorial on the graduating system, published in his journal of December 4th, 1878:

"It has indeed produced in Monongalia County, and is destined to produce all over the State of West Virginia, an educational revival. It is safe to say that no subject so interests the people of Monongalia County to-day, as the education of their sons and daughters. They talk about that more than anything else. No subject presents such charms as that of education, and larger crowds can be gathered to witness the annual examinations in the several districts than can be called together by the most eloquent preacher or the most popular political orators. The writer of this article has accompanied Superintendent WADE twice through the county on the occasion of these examinations, and he has marvelled again and again at the deep and abiding interest of the people in the school work. They come early to the house in which the examination is being held, they come in all kinds of disagreeable weather, they come from three, four, or five, and sometimes ten miles. Their interest never flags through the entire day; they remain until eleven and sometimes twelve o'clock at night, and they go away as from half-finished feasts, with appetites keen as ever for mind food, affectionately and enthusiastically devoted to the school of the people. We are among those who believe that it is possible for this State to have a prosperous, honorable, influential future, but we are quite confident of the truth of the statement that this future is possible only by the general education of the people, and we are sure that no better plan has thus far been devised to secure this very desirable end than the introduction into the public school by efficient county superintendents, of this system of graduation. Let it be tried."

I might call the testimony of a multitude of newspapers all over the State, but time will not permit. I cannot, however, close this part of my subject without acknowledging the indebtedness of the cause of education in Monongalia County to our county papers, the *Morgantown New Dominion*, and the *Post*.

I would say to educators everywhere that the public press, one of the "great powers," is almost always willing, and should be used by you, to promote the interests of popular education.

Since the introduction of the graduating system into the schools of Monongalia County, it has been adopted in several other counties of the State. All our county superintendents make annual reports to the State Superintendent of the condition of the schools of their several counties. I shall take from the printed report of the State Superintendent

THE OFFICIAL TESTIMONY OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS WHO HAVE TRIED THE GRADUATING SYSTEM.

Superintendent W. M. WIRT, of Marshall County, in his report for the year ending August 31st, 1876, says:

"With the help of the teachers, I introduced Superintendent WADE's plan of holding district examinations and granting diplomas to those who could pass a creditable examination in the current common-school branches. This, I think, had a good effect, as many pupils studied with an object, and endeavored to acquire a more practical knowledge of what they were studying than before. Diplomas were granted to two pupils in Liberty, to two in Union, and to three in Clay Districts, and to seventeen in the Independent District, Moundsville, while more than one hundred entered the graduating class of the present year. I think the system a good one, and would recommend it to the Superintendents and teachers of other counties, as it has worked well so far as tried in this county."

In his report for the year ending Aug. 31st, 1878, having tested the system another year, he says:

"In the spring months I held examinations in the different districts, which were very interesting occasions, as the graduates delivered speeches in the evenings. In a few instances their commencement exercises would compare favorably with similar exercises in colleges and seminaries. There were seventy-six graduates during the year, most of whom showed a thorough knowledge of the common-school curriculum. There will be more than one hundred graduates in the incoming year. I make no argument in favor of this system, but will respectfully refer you to Mr. WADE's Catalogue of Monongalia-County Schools, in which he urges, at some length, its adoption throughout the State. I will simply say to Superintendents of other counties:—try it with a determination to make it a success, and you will soon be convinced of its adaptability to the work to be done."

Superintendent T. A. PARKS, of Tyler County in his report for the year ending Aug. 31st, 1878, says:

Much of this increased attendance, with the superior work done in the schools last winter, we attribute to the teachers' institutes that were held in the county, especially the one held in Middlebourne, in November 1877, conducted by the County Superintendent and Mr. A. L. WADE,

County Superintendent of Monongalia County, assisted by President THOMPSON, of the State University, and Mr. G. W. ATKINSON, editor of the *Wheeling Standard*. Many questions of vital importance to the Public Schools were discussed in the Institute, prominent among which was the graduating system as originated and introduced by Mr. WADE into the Free Schools of Monongalia County, and as adopted and practiced in other counties of the State. The teachers of the county voted unanimously to adopt it in Tyler County.

Superintendent JONATHAN M. SATTERFIELD, of Marion County, in his report for the year ending August 31st, 1878, says:

"Another great auxiliary in the work with us, as it is recognized by almost every one, is our system of graduation and examination for scholars, introduced during the year. Though the extra labor demanded of me to introduce this feature, and to carry on its operations during the term was very considerable, I feel on viewing the results, well satisfied with the project, and know that my labor has not been in vain. As I forward you a copy of our catalogue, reporting this work in full, for the year, I will not consume space in detailing particulars *here*, and will remark no further concerning it, save to express the earnest desire that all our county superintendents may introduce and give this system a trial."

I could bring additional testimony of like character, but we are told in a very "Old Book," that "In the mouth of two or three witnesses every word shall be established."

A resolution, an official copy of which was furnished me by the secretary, shows

THE ACTION OF THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF WEST VIRGINIA.

"At the State Teachers' Association held at Martinsburg, West Virginia, August 28th, 29th and 30th, 1877, a resolution was presented by Prof. J. BONAR, of Moundsville Graded School, and amended by Prof. J. McMURRAN, Principal of Shepherdstown Normal School, which amendment was adopted by a vote of the Association, and reads as follows:

"*Resolved*, That the system introduced by Superintendent A. L. WADE, into the free schools of Monongalia County, providing for grading schools, holding annual district examinations, and granting diplomas to pupils who complete the free-school branches, be recommended to county superintendents throughout West Virginia for their adoption."

In order to present the

OPINION OF STATE SUPERINTENDENT PENDLETON UPON THE GRADUATING SYSTEM

I will make an extract from his last annual report to the Governor of West Virginia. Under the head of "Graded Primary Instruction" the Superintendent says:

"All education should be conducted with method—a rational progress, towards a definite end, is the secret of success in every undertaking. But, in our Primary Schools, while we have a prescribed set of subjects and Text-Books, there is no prescribed order in which the subjects shall be studied, nor arrangement of the pupils in classes, nor designation of the

time to be given to them respectively. There ought to be a beginning—a regular order of progress, and end to the Primary course of instruction. This has been felt by some of our best County Superintendents, and Superintendent WADG, of Monongalia County, has succeeded in introducing a method in the schools of his county, that has worked with admirable success. But so long as it is left to each teacher to do as he lists, with respect to the organization and conduct of school work, we can have but little system or uniformity in it. I suggest that authority be given to prescribe a regular course of Primary instruction, to be generally followed in the schools, with provision for the examination and graduation of all pupils who satisfactorily complete it."

Finding that the graduating system met with universal favor in West Virginia I concluded a few months ago to send copies of the Third Annual Catalogue of the Free Schools of Monongalia County to some of the highest Officials, Instructors, and Educators connected with the educational work in the United States in order to obtain

THE OPINIONS OF THE BEST EDUCATORS OF THE NATION.

I have with me to-day responsive letters and editorials from which I shall present brief extracts.

HON. JOHN D. PHILBRICK, late United-States Commissioner of Education at the Paris Exposition, in a letter dated Boston, February 28th, 1879, says:

"*Dear Sir* :—I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 22d, with the accompanying copy of your report as County Superintendent of Schools. I have read with interest your account of the 'graduating system,' and I cheerfully comply with your request to give you my opinion of it.

The essential features of the system, as I understand it, consist of three elements, namely:

1. The classification of the pupils according to their grade of advancement in all the required branches.
2. A final examination each year to ascertain what pupils have satisfactorily completed the prescribed course of instruction.
3. The granting of diplomas to such pupils as have completed the course.

To your system, so far as it embraces these features, I give my cordial approval. Wisely administered, it would produce, without doubt, very beneficial results. I have never before heard of such a system being thoroughly carried out in all its details in the rural districts of this country. In its application to city schools the plan is not novel. * * * But the system is liable to abuses which should be carefully looked after.

From your report I feel convinced that you are doing an admirable work, and I have no doubt that your county ought to be marked as a bright spot on the education map of the country."

"Very truly yours,

JOHN D. PHILBRICK."

"A. L. WADE, Esq., Sup't Schools,
" Monongalia County, W. Va."

COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA.
Department of Public Instruction.

HARRISBURG, Feb. 22d, 1879.

ALEX. L. WADE, Esq.,

County Superintendent, Monongalia Co., W. Va.

My Dear Sir:—I have time only to glance at your report, but I have no doubt from what I have seen of it that your "graduating system" may be made to do a great amount of good in public schools. If you will send me a concise account of it and its workings, I will publish it in the *School Journal*. I shall not have room for a long article.

Yours truly,

J. P. WICKERSHAM."

I will now give an extract from a letter of Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, President of the National Educational Association. It is dated at Dayton, Ohio, April 8th, 1879. He says:

"I have read your report with much interest, and join most heartily with the distinguished educators you have named in commending your 'graduating system' for primary schools, as worthy the consideration of educators throughout the country. I make no question that the system will serve a very valuable purpose in stimulating youth to greater exertion in study, and at once prove an incentive to the acquisition of knowledge both effectual and healthy."

GEORGE P. BROWN, President of the Department of Elementary Schools of the National Educational Association, in a letter dated Toledo, Ohio, May 7th, 1879, says:

"I thank you for the copy of your report. It is one of the best I have ever seen."

Hon. JOHN EATON, United-States Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, in a letter dated Washington, March 4th, 1879, says:

"Your letter of the 19th inst. and the copy of your Third Annual Catalogue are received. I have not had time to examine the pamphlet, so that I can hardly give my views yet, as to the graded system devised by yourself. I shall read your pamphlet with much interest."

In a subsequent letter (March 14th,) Mr. EATON says:

"It is very unsafe to express an opinion upon such a matter without a personal investigation."

Barnes's Educational Monthly, February number, contains an editorial which so clearly presents and so heartily approves the graduating system that I present it in full, notwithstanding I have already referred to it. The editor says:

"The question has frequently been asked of late, What is meant by a common-school course? It has been nothing but a mixture of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with a quantity of geography, history, and science in quantities to suit the taste; there has been no course in it. In a multitude of cases what a child studies depends upon the blind judgment of parents or the momentary convenience or caprice of teachers. The so-called common-school course is no course at all. We most earnestly

commend any superintendent or teacher who can suggest any way by which order can be obtained, and the confusion now existing avoided. Mr. A. L. WADE, County Superintendent, Monongalia County, W. Va., has done more in this direction than any other person of whom we have heard. In his work he has accomplished the following results, which we commend to all similar workers throughout the Union:

1. The primary branches are taken up as one course of study for graduation.

2. The time in which each advanced pupil agrees to complete a certain course is fixed.

3. Public examinations of graduating classes are held annually, and diplomas are granted to those who complete prescribed courses.

4. Alumni associations of those who have graduated are formed.

5. An annual catalogue containing the names of all pupils attending school in the county during the year is published. In this catalogue, the names of all pupils are placed in their appropriate classes, showing from year to year what advancement has been made.

In all this work there is needed careful and intelligent supervision. The plan is admirable, and if it should be universally adopted it would give our County Commissioners and Superintendents a definite work to do, and unify our common schools, so that we could point, with some show of truth and reason to the Common-School System of the United States of America."

The *Teacher*, published in this city, one of the neatest and cheapest of the Monthlies, in the January number concludes a review of the Third Annual Catalogue of the Free Schools of Monongalia County, in these words:

"The graduating system as described in the pamphlet before us, is a grand step in the march of education. We hail with satisfaction an appliance of this kind coming as it does from a live teacher, and exhibiting results of practical experience in the school-room."

The *Monthly Normal Review*, July number, contains a leading editorial on the graduating system, from which I make the following extracts:

"It is simply the application to primary schools of a well-grounded principle employed in all higher schools. Every student who enters college, for example, has his course mapped out for him. He may do more, but there is a minimum of work which he must do. So here as soon as a child passes from the preparatory grade to his class, he knows how much work he has to do, and how much time he has for doing it. It insures also a variety of studies, and we do not believe Mr. WADE states it too strongly when he says, 'My opinion is that a pupil from fourteen to sixteen years of age, who has had some advantages in school, will do better in each branch, if he takes up the entire free-school course, than he will do if he takes up nothing beyond arithmetic.' It furnishes the pupil an incentive to work. He has publicly pledged himself to accomplish a certain thing, and has associated himself with others striving for the same end; and now it is no longer the teacher who urges him on, but his own self-pride, his emulative feelings, his love for the approval of friends, and added to these and equally potent with any of them the desire for the ap

proval and fear of the condemnation of public opinion at whose bar he is now judged. Our country schools certainly need some attention, and we know of no plan more promising of good than this. It has been tried in some places, and we would gladly see it adopted in more; for though objections may be found to it, nevertheless it is a step in the right direction, and it is certainly freer from faults than many other plans already in vogue. At the very least it merits a fair trial and a full discussion, and we hope it may have both these as soon as possible."

The *New-England Journal of Education*, of May 8th, 1879, published the article from *Barnes's Educational Monthly*, to which I have referred, and in a kindly manner makes this criticism. I give the first sentence and the last paragraph:

"Superintendent WADE, of Monongalia County, West Virginia, has adopted a graduating plan for primary schools, which seems to be producing a revolution in that section; but whether it is due to his enthusiasm as an educational worker, or to the merits of the system we at this distance of remove cannot decide. It has occurred to us that it may be possible for teachers to exalt the form at the expense of the substance, and that in looking too earnestly for the formation of system which shall embrace a multitude of schools and teachers, we are liable to lose that which is the thing of greatest value in education—the individuality of both teacher and pupil. We hope to examine the results of Mr. WADE's efforts more fully when we shall be better able to judge of their merits."

The *Educational Weekly*, Chicago, of March 28th, contains an editorial of more than two columns in which the system is carefully and critically reviewed. I extract two paragraphs which give the spirit of the article:

"There can be no question but that such a course will very materially quicken the interest of both pupils and parents in the public schools. The same personal ambition is appealed to in the children as that which inspires the academic or college student to apply himself diligently to his studies, and finally graduate from the course with a formal certificate of attainments. And this is also the testimony of Superintendent WADE after having well tried the plan.

This question is one of great importance in the administration of the public-school system, and the friends of that system should give it a fair consideration. While, therefore, the *Weekly* would approve and defend every such movement as that of Superintendent WADE, in West Virginia, if judiciously and wisely conducted, it would caution all who are devoted to such progressive steps to advance slowly and carefully guard against abuses which are apt to follow close upon the heels of all true progress."

The *American Journal of Education*, St. Louis, April number, contains an editorial which I present in full:

"We hope the article on Schools in West Virginia, published in our last issue, was very carefully read.

"We see in it many things to admire and to commend.

"As a means of interesting both the pupil and the parent, it proved to be eminently successful. The parents, too, were tax-payers, and it gave

the teachers an opportunity to demonstrate to the tax-payers the worth and the measure of their work. We should have more liberal *estimates* made for all our schools in this State, if the tax-payers knew what and how much our teachers are doing.

"Not knowing much about it, they are disposed to cut down the "*estimates*" for teachers' wages and other necessary things, to the lowest figure possible.

"For this, our teachers themselves are very much to blame. They do not take care that the tax-payers shall be kept well posted on what the schools are doing—on what improvements are being made.

"This graduating system, adopted and so successfully carried out by Mr. A. L. WADK of Monongalia County, West Virginia, would certainly work a much-needed reform in this direction.

"There is so much of real practical value in it, touching as it does this vital question of the *worth* and the work of our teachers, that we are disposed strongly to commend it to the attention of our friends all through the West and South."

But I must close this testimony, and conclude this argument. I have presented a system which is *new*, and have shown that its introduction into the Free Schools of Monongalia County, West Virginia, produced an educational revival of unusual interest, and that although four years have elapsed this interest is undiminished. I have shown that the State Teachers' Association of West Virginia recommends the adoption of this system throughout the State. I have proved by official reports of County Superintendents who have tested the system, that it carries with it the spirit of revival. I have shown that the public press of West Virginia favors its adoption. I have proved by the official report of the General Superintendent of Public Instruction in West Virginia that it is a plan that has worked with admirable success, and that he favors its adoption by law. I have shown by letters and editorials that some of the foremost thinkers and freshest writers connected with the educational work of the nation, favor the system.

I now leave the subject with the Association, believing that it will receive due consideration. Permit me to say in conclusion that we are engaged in a grand cause, the education and elevation of our race. To educate a being whom God made a *little* lower than the angels, and then crowned him with glory and honor, is a noble work, but we must not forget that *education embraces the culture of the whole man with all his faculties.*

In discussion, J. W. HARVEY, of Chester Co., Pa., said that he considered the subject of the utmost importance. A modification of present methods would have a tendency to keep pupils in school a greater length of time. It would also be a stimulus to both teachers and pupils.

W. A. BELL, of Indiana, said that the graded system in country schools was not a new thing in Indiana. It had been in operation in that State for the past six years, and in all the counties having efficient county superintendents had proved a success. In some of the best counties the

schools are not only graded, but at the close of the course an examination is held by the county superintendent and "*certificates*" are given to those who have successfully completed the course.

Mrs. REBECCA D. RICKOFF, of Ohio, read a paper on

THE FIRST SCHOOL DAYS.

At the opening of the fall term of our city schools, children, varying in age from four to seven years, come pouring into the lowest department until not only the seats, but often the edges of the platform and all other available places are overflowing with a jostling, uncomfortable, disconcerted crowd. In the confusion many children get into the wrong grades and must be exchanged. Some are found not to be of legal age, and must be sent home; some are too old for this grade and yet not sufficiently advanced for the next. These and similar things demand the immediate attention of the teacher; added to this are constant interruptions from the necessary visits of school officials and interviews with parents. It is under such conditions as these that the primary teacher has to begin her important work. If during the first week she succeed in organizing her school, in recording names, ages, and residences, in getting each pupil properly provided with slate, pencil, sponge, and other necessary materials, in having slates ruled, pencils sharpened, etc., she will have accomplished much, and her school, so far as the mere machinery of management is concerned, will be ready to begin work. But while the teacher is doing all this, there sit the little children in the close school for four, five—in some *wicked* cities even six—hours each day. The majority of these children have never before been inside of a school-room, and everything about them is new and strange. Whence have these children come? From homes whose influences vary as the number of families the children represent. How various, then, must be the impressions, produced upon them by these first days of school! The teacher, as she looks over the room, will observe that nearly every type of character, nearly every phase of disposition, may be studied in the faces before her. Here she will see a bold, defiant boy, a little Arab from the streets, who never heard a word of love—he is on the look out that no one gets the better of him; and beside him sits a timid girl, the pet of a household, who misses her pleasant home and wants to run away and hide her head in her mother's bosom. There is the bully with an air of bravado; there the sly puss; and yonder a fair young face full of expectation, dashed a little, it may be, by awe of the teacher, and chilled by a sense of loneliness, but the little one loves novelty, and is eager to push forward on the pathway of life. Here is a spoiled darling, pouting because she finds herself not, as at home, the centre of interest, but only one of a crowd; and near is the little girl who has been obliged "to help" ever since she could walk; the only happiness her childhood will ever know she will find in the school-room. Here is a little idealist; already he dreams of conquering the world he knows, be it to dig a deeper well, to build a higher wall, to sail the ocean, or scale

the clouds. He has not yet made acquaintance with the sad word *fail*. And by his side, with tearful eyes, sits the child so easily discouraged that he must be helped over all the rough places.

What can be done with such a number of children, so different both by nature and previous training and influences, and so differently affected by their surroundings? How is the teacher to weld these diverse elements into one harmonious whole? For before she can hope to control or teach them as a class, she must first accomplish this. These children know no songs, recitations, or exercises in common. They cannot read, write, nor print, and the first instruction to be given in any of these subjects to children, so dazed, and ignorant of school ways as these are, must be exceedingly difficult under favorable circumstances, but under the existing ones of constant interruption, and an entire ignorance on the part of the teacher of the children, is an impossibility. Some teachers say that all they can do during the first two or three days is to keep the children in their seats and *make* them be quiet. Quiet is better than disorder, certainly; but what a bitter alternative is this! Some teachers say "they are such little things, it would be cruel to make them mind," and so they coax and entertain them. This way is worse even than the other; for that teacher who, by entertaining her pupils too soon or too much, releases them from the restraint of strangeness before she has secured complete control over them, will soon find herself confronted by a mob of wilful children, boiling over with mischief. If, then, it be impossible to instruct the children, cruel to keep them still, and dangerous to entertain them, what shall the teacher do? The easiest solution to this problem would be pleasanter school-rooms, smaller schools, and more teachers, but the question is not what the circumstances should be, but what is best to be done under the circumstances that are.

It is generally taken for granted that our Normal Schools prepare for the emergencies of this time. To a very slight extent they do, but by no means does the amount of instruction given meet the demands of the circumstances. Such instruction as they give which bears practically upon the work of this period comes under the head of school management. But although school management is interwoven thread by thread with the work which is necessary to be done during the first six or eight weeks of the first school year, yet school management can never cover the whole ground. This work has never been analyzed, classified, and systematized into any practical form. And the manifold perplexities and annoyances of this time and the almost inextricable confusion of ideas resulting therefrom deter normal instructors from giving explicit directions for the work to be done. And so the teacher of this grade is left to engineer her way through the labyrinth of difficulties which surrounds her with only a gosamer to guide her. But God made the young women—God bless them!—to be teachers of the young children, and so we find in all good primary schools a great amount of instruction given which is never counted in as a part of the course of study. But unfortunately even teachers who are quick to see the need of this instruction and give it, do so in a very desultory manner and without appreciating the importance and value of that which they do.

Evidently the teacher needs first to dispel the feeling of strangeness and put the children at their ease, to make them feel that their teacher is their dear friend and helper, the one to take mother's place during school hours, and that their playmates are their companions who are to join with them in many pleasant occupations. But she needs to do more than this, she needs from the very beginning to accustom the school to act as a whole—as a whole to give keen attention and prompt obedience to all orders. These ends can be accomplished only by means of conversations, concert exercises, both physical and vocal, and story-telling, and training in school ways, all combined into one exercise. But to do this the teacher must find some common ground which she is sure is familiar to them all. The ordinary school routine will not do, for that is new to them all. Are there no happy home associations which may be brought into the school-room to make them forget that they are in a strange place? How is it with Mother Goose's rhymes? Are they not familiar to all, and have they not learned them under happy auspices? Even the little Arab had some one to sing them over his cradle. Mother Goose's rhymes are not to be utterly scorned. No observant mother scorns them. Though many of the songs are idle and silly, and some of them mere jargon, yet they, and kindred things in other languages have long been a power in the world, and this, I believe, is chiefly owing to their associations with mother, home, and early childhood.

CHARLES LAMB once went into a bookstore to purchase a volume of fairy tales for a friend's child. The bookseller handed him with considerable pride a book "Just out, full of new and interesting fairy stories." "No, no," answered LAMB, "not that; I want the old, *true* fairy stories, that I read when I was a child." And so, in spite of their faults, let the teacher win the hearts of her children by telling them the *true* childish jingles which first they heard at mother's knee.

The hand is the child's first plaything and first tool; for this reason it is one of the best as it is one of the most convenient objects for a first lesson in observation and expression. All their lives have the children had their hands, and yet that they have never observed them closely and have much to find out about them, can soon be made apparent by asking them a few questions. Every little hand in the school-room has been covered with mother's kisses. Can we find a more natural or stronger link between home and school? Concert exercises will delight and give courage to the children, and at the same time enable the teacher to handle the school as a unit. Training in school ways will give them confidence and ease in the school-room; stories and songs will develop their thought and feeling; familiar conversations will rob the new things of their strangeness; while the teacher, by means of comparisons with things at home, can gather around the new, the familiar associations of the old. Let her each day grow more and more precise and exacting in her training, until she has led the unconscious children step by step over the borderland into the very heart of the school country. By such means as these may we hope to weave the old life into the new, so that there will be no break, but the child will glide from the one to the other scarcely feeling the change.

The wise teacher, foreseeing the difficulties she will have to encounter, prepares for them beforehand. On the morning of the first day she makes a point of being in her school-room so early as to have time to make special preparations for the reception of the children. For her own sake she will need to come early in order that she may herself be sure of her surroundings. She will see that the room is properly ventilated, is of the right temperature; that the shades are neatly rolled up; that the table cover is neatly put on; that chalk, erasers, pointers, charts, etc., are in place and ready for use; that the blackboard is at least clean, though it would be better if it were adorned with a few pictures drawn by her own hand. Are these trifling matters? They are often neglected, and yet attention to such minutiae gives a moral force in favor of order and preparation for work before the time for work is come prevents a division of attention on the part both of teacher and pupils.

The *ideal* teacher would decorate the bare, cold walls of her school-room with garlands, would fill the staring windows with blossoming plants, and beautify her room with pictures, bouquets, and ornaments. She would make the first impression of the school-room so charming that it would be to the children always a bright remembrance.

The teacher, having received the children, cleared her room as far as possible of all pupils who do not belong to it and seated the rest, comes at last to the time when she must approach them and address them as a school. How many a young teacher has stood in doubt at such a moment! The children are quiet and watchful, wondering what is to happen next. The teacher does not stand upon the strange and awe-inspiring platform, but down near to the children. In a bright cheery way she addresses them. She needs to be careful what words she uses; they must be not only simple and childlike, but they must be common words. Generally the teacher's culture is superior to that of her pupils, and she will naturally use language to which they are not accustomed. She needs therefore to make an estimate of their average capacity and adapt her words to it; else she might almost as well speak to them in a foreign tongue.

In a few pleasant words the teacher greets the children, if her welcome be nothing more than simply "I am glad to see you here, children." What she says is not so important as the way in which she says it. Unaccustomed to the teacher's voice as the children are, they will perhaps fail to catch the full meaning of her first sentences, but the impression of her tone, her look, her manner, will remain with them.

The teacher now tells the children a story. Is story-telling out of place in the school-room? The story-tellers of the world have ever been its greatest teachers. She does not tell them a new story, but an old, old story, one likely to be familiar to all, no matter of what nationality they may be. "Cinderella"—that came over the mountains of Asia with the Aryan race—that was told thousands of years ago in old Egypt; "Red Riding Hood," "The Three Bears." Whatever the story is, it must be familiar and dramatic, and the teacher must tell it in a dramatic way. By gesture, look, and tone she must make the picture live before the children. By such a story told in such a way the teacher can win her

school in the very beginning. The children being warmed into interest and attention, the teacher now holds with them the

FIRST CONVERSATION.

"Well, children, you find school a very different place from home, don't you? Have any of you as large a room as this at home? Have you as large a room as this in your house?" Appealing here and there to a bright child whom she thinks will answer. "And so many children, too! Have any of your mothers as many children as are here? Can you tell me how many children your mother has? Don't you know? Do you know how many children your mother has?" calling upon another. "And your mother has how many? And I have—let me see—one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight,—O, so many children! I haven't time to count them all. When I was a little girl I used to know a story about an old woman who lived in a shoe. Let me see—how does that story go?" The children watch her eagerly as she repeats slowly, as if recalling:

"There was an old woman
Who lived in a shoe,
And—and—"

"Why, I used to know that story quite well when I was little like you. Can't any of you tell me what comes next?" In this way she induces one and another to help her, perhaps finds some ready to repeat the whole rhyme. She lets all who will say something—anything—if only she can get them to speak.

Some have spoken and the rest are in sympathy; it is an established fact that they can speak in the school-room in the presence of all the rest. A great point is gained. They have discovered, too, that there are other children there who know the same things which they know, and the teacher knows the same things, too; this is common ground; something to build an acquaintance upon.

The teacher repeats:—

"There was an old woman
Who lived in a shoe,
She had so many children
She didn't know what to do."

"I think I must be that old woman and you are the children, and this great big room is the shoe.

"There was an old woman
Who lived in a shoe,—"

"What a queer place to live in! Don't you think she must have been a very queer old woman? Don't you think it must have been a very big shoe? See, children!" Here the teacher turns to the blackboard and quickly draws the simple outline of a large shoe. How eagerly the children watch her, and how delighted they are at the result! She says:

"Here is the picture of the shoe: this is the heel and here is the toe, and this is the top of the shoe. And"—turning to the board and making a few more lines—"here is the old woman herself." The children laugh and the teacher laughs, and all enjoy it and feel better acquainted; but nothing boisterous is allowed.

The teacher quiets the school and continues:

“ ‘ And she had so many children
She didn't know what to do.’ ”

“ Shall I make the pictures of the children too ? ” Of course the answer is “ yes. ” This the teacher agrees to do, but upon condition that the children shall be very quiet while she does it. And she insists upon this, thus giving them a training lesson in obedience and self-control. The teacher now draws the old woman's children crowding about her and climbing over the shoe. By means of a few lines and dots she produces such pictures as those very humorous ones we frequently see in *St. Nicholas* and other juvenile magazines. This picture, by its very simplicity and crudeness, gives a keen delight to the children. They have seen it grow under the teacher's hands; it is not beyond them and they appreciate the fun of it.

The teacher now endeavors to make the children talk about this picture, asking and answering questions and listening to all they have to say. Most likely their little tongues will be loosened by this time; but if they are still too shy, she helps them by making up a story about the little girl who has hold of the old woman's hand, about the boy who is climbing out of the top of the shoe; she wonders why that other little boy is hiding under the shoe, etc., etc.

Not a little part of the advantage of this exercise is the cultivation of the children's imaginations. And for this purpose, this simple picture drawn upon the blackboard is far superior to any finished picture which the teacher could bring into the school-room.

After the exhilaration of this exercise the children will need quieting. The teacher may tell them to be quiet, but they will not be because they cannot be. Already they have sat still much longer than they are accustomed to do. They now need some

PHYSICAL EXERCISE.

The teacher requests the children to rise; all do not get up; they have not understood her perhaps, or are afraid. She walks down among them, laying a caressing hand on the head of a timid one here, patting the cheek of a frightened one there, picking up a book or scarf that may have fallen, and carefully putting it in its place, all the time showing them that she wishes and is waiting for them all to stand up. “ I see a little boy here who has not stood up yet; and this little girl, isn't she going to stand up with the rest ? ” etc. When all are standing, she says: “ All hold up your hands this way—high up, so that I can see them. Down ! ” The teacher suits the action to the word and the children instinctively imitate her.

“ All hold your hands out in front—this way. Down ! Hold up both hands, high up—higher. O, so high ! If we could reach high enough we might touch the top of the room. Look up and see how high it is. Stand on tip-toes and see if you can reach it. ”

After this exercise the teacher requires the children to be quiet. It will be good discipline for them. But she must not be surprised if they are not very quiet, for their ideas and hers are widely different upon that

point. It is useless for her to exclaim "Be quiet. Do be quiet. Be quiet, I tell you!"

QUIET AS A SUNBEAM.

A teacher having charge of a new and rather turbulent school, had, after much effort, succeeded in securing the attention of her pupils, and felt sure she saw in their eager, earnest faces a desire to obey her, to win her approbation, and yet, when she told them to be quiet, or to do anything quietly, there seemed to be almost no attempt on their part to obey her. Why? She concluded that it must be they had no clear comprehension of what she meant by the word quiet. Suddenly she said to them: "Stop! children. I have something to show you. See! See this sunbeam on the floor here! Look at it. Listen to it. Does it make any noise? It shines and shines, but it makes no noise. It is quiet. It shines quietly. Now let me see if you can be as quiet as the sunbeam." Scarcely a breath was heard in the room. "Now let me see how quietly you can rise." The effect was wonderful.

When the opportunity offers, the teacher gives the children their

FIRST LESSON,

which is a training lesson in school ways. She begins with a story:

Once there was a little girl who came to my school named EMMA. EMMA had bright, merry eyes, and long, soft curls, and she used to wear a blue dress and nice clean aprons. She had such a happy, smiling mouth that you would just wish to kiss her. She was a good little girl, and when I told her how to sit in school she would—

"Shall I show you how she used to sit in school?"

She walks to the platform followed by many curious eyes. She sits down in a chair and shows them; she lifts her head erect, throws back her shoulders, and places her feet near together. She performs these actions separately, slowly, and in a manner to impress the children with the importance of what she is doing.

"This is the way EMMA used to sit in school. You may all sit this way." A few of the children imitate her. Without reproving the others, she points these out with approval. "JOHNNY is sitting right." "That is the way, MARY." "FANNY, here, sits almost as well as EMMA used to sit." "That will do."

After a rest she says: "Now, children, let us try that again and see if you can all get it right this time." She repeats precisely the same actions, speaking in a gentle, cheerful way, but in a tone so firm and decided that it will strengthen the fluctuating little wills. As she makes the motions she says, "Head up, shoulders back, feet together; ah, that is well done; almost all of you sit right this time. Look at CHARLIE, how straight he sits! See how ELLEN holds her head up; and WILLIE, I see, has put his feet nicely together." Perhaps the teacher ventures a third trial, but not more than that or she will weary the children.

"Now, I will show you something else that little EMMA used to do. Oh, how bright her face was when she did it! Watch closely now, and see if you can do it too." She slowly brings her hands together and clasps them, fingers interlaced, and holds them out on a level with her chin.

She holds them there a moment to give the children an opportunity to see what she has done, and then has them imitate her. Few of the children will get this right, but if only the majority try to do it much is gained. She repeats this once or twice and then says, "Now, children, lay your hands on your desks this way," and she places her clasped hands on the edge of the table. She now passes quickly down the aisles, so that those who are waiting may not become demoralized; smiles and nods approvingly to those who are sitting correctly, approaches those who have not obeyed, and gently places the little shoulders and hands in position, finding no fault, saying only, simply and kindly, "This is the way." When all are in position she stands before them and says, "How pretty it looks to see so many children sitting so orderly in school!"

"*'This is the way to sit in school.'* You may all say that together. Oh, but you did not all say it together. Now say it again with me: '*This is the way to sit in school.*'"

It is important that every time the children are trained in school ways the lesson be given in the same order and in the same manner, because it is only by constant repetition of the same thing that the perception in the child's mind will become a clear conception, an idea which he will be able to grasp and hold, and every such physical exercise should be accompanied by some training in language—the putting into words and into a complete sentence the experience gained through the exercise of the body.

It would be impossible to give, in such a paper as this, even a synopsis of the number and variety of the exercises which are necessary in the first school days. About the hand, the slate, the school-room, and the desk, there group a number of beautiful lessons which are not object-lessons, nor language lessons, nor games, nor occupations, and yet which are all of these and more. We might put it thus: With each object lesson there should be a story; with each story a conversation; with each conversation a physical exercise; with each physical exercise a training in school ways, and with each and all and through all a training in the use of language. Accompanying these exercises there should be, as soon as the school is organized, instruction in the usual branches of study. Not by any means because the conditions are favorable to such instruction, but because the children have come to school with the understanding that they are to learn to read and write, and they should not be disappointed, and neither should their parents. I am not disposed to dispute the statement that learning to read is the chief business of the first school year, but I do assert that it is not the chief business of the first school days. Even though the only end desired should be to give the children the best possible instruction in reading, writing, and numbers, yet can this end be best attained by giving chief attention in the beginning to other things.

If by this paper I have succeeded in drawing attention to the fact that a readjustment is needed in the kind of work required of teachers during the first school days, I shall be content. If by the lessons presented I have indicated the direction in which that reform is possible, let all the credit be given to those noble young women in whose school-rooms I have observed such lessons as these wrought out to beautiful perfection.

W. E. SHELDON, of Massachusetts, heartily endorsed the paper. Said that there was much in it that was practical—that could be taken and applied to school work.

MR. BARRINGER, of Newark, N. J., said that he liked the paper. It is practical. It answers the question *what to do*.

MRS. BURRILL, of the Philadelphia Kindergarten, criticized the paper, in that it advocated the abandonment of the kindergarten idea in important respects. She defended the FROEBEL system, and claimed that it was always a success in the hands of those who understood it.

Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C., said that Mrs. RICKOFF had hit the nail on the head. Many claim more for FROEBEL than he ever claimed for himself. He was a kindergartner if the kindergarten will carry out the principles of the *garden*. The child needs *training*.

J. R. SYPHER, of Philadelphia, said all is good. When any one says *this is the way*, he is an "enthusiast." The most that can be consistently claimed in regard to methods at present is a way, *the way* has not yet been found. We must take all and have genius enough to *adapt* it and use it.

A paper prepared by WALTER SMITH, of Boston, Mass., was read by W. E. SHELDON, subject:

ART AND DRAWING IN EDUCATION.

At a meeting of the American Institute of Instruction, held at Lewiston, Maine, in 1872, I had the honor of reading a paper on the teaching of drawing in public schools. Two years previous, the legislature of Massachusetts had enacted that drawing should form a part of the public education of the State, and earnest efforts had just commenced to teach the subject in public schools.

The great inquiry on the part of teachers was for some *plan* whereby they could give intelligent instruction in the subject,—a method, whereby they might have before them some definite objects to be aimed at, with the stages of study leading up to the final results clearly indicated.

In the paper referred to, I briefly outlined the objects to be aimed at in teaching drawing in public schools, and indicated the general features of the study to be pursued in Primary, Grammar, and High Schools.

As the plan then briefly outlined has been pursued in Massachusetts as well as in other parts of the country for about seven years, and as it has been the subject of much educational discussion, I have thought the best response I could make to your kind invitation to read a paper before your honorable body, would be to recall the main points of the scheme indicated in the paper referred to, and briefly review the practical experience of the past seven years in Massachusetts, in endeavoring to carry them out, and also to consider what effect the study of drawing is destined to have on education and on practical life in America.

It may seem slightly unbecoming on my part thus to invite public discussion to a scheme of instruction with which I have been so closely

identified, but I have the less hesitation in inviting attention to the matter now, inasmuch as the features embodied in the scheme were in no sense original with me save in one particular, viz.: the teaching of industrial design to children, in the public day schools, and the arrangement of the whole course.—All the other features suggested were practical adaptations of the results of European experience in teaching the subject which had become familiar to me through many years teaching and much observation.

DRAWING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

In the plan referred to I began by outlining what should be the beginning of the instruction in Primary Schools. Starting with simple lines pupils were to be taught their names, character, method of drawing them with the free hand, and next to combine them to form the plane geometric figures. Next the names and shapes of the figures were to be learned, as well as their relation to each other. Next followed the application of these geometric forms in simple ornaments and diagram-representations of objects. The practice of drawing from memory of forms previously drawn as well as drawing from the teacher's oral dictation were also urged. The drawing in Primary Schools was all to be in two dimensions, the aim being to teach the simple elementary facts of form modified by their perspective appearance. I also expressed the hope that we should before long see the day when general teaching in Primary Schools should be largely given by drawing,—that object lessons, in which pupils would be required to draw some peculiarities of the object described, or give some illustration in which the use of the object might be defined, would find a recognition.

GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

In these schools pupils coming from the Primary Schools would be familiar with the shapes of the plane geometric forms, their names and definitions, and would be prepared to enter on a broader application of them:—

First, in design. In this feature they could then be taught the principles of symmetry, repetition, radiation, alternation, etc. In the upper classes pupils might have given them some geometric figures as a square, triangle, or circle, and some elements of form as leaf, bud, flower forms, and be required to fill the space with these elements in some arrangement of their own, illustrating their ideas of symmetry, repetition, etc. This practice would involve a careful study of natural forms. They should also have considerable practice in drawing from copies of good historical design for the purpose of developing skill of hand in drawing, and also for cultivating the taste.

Second, drawing of solid forms and objects. In the Primary classes, pupils were limited to the drawing of objects *geometrically*, that is representing the *facts* of the forms in two dimensions—length and breadth. In the Grammar Schools another stage of difficulty was proposed,—to represent objects as they *appear*, which would involve their being taught first the *facts* of the forms themselves and then the *modifications* these facts undergo when viewed by the eye. The nature of the exercises for this feature

would consist first of drawing the solid geometric forms, such as cone, cylinder, cube, etc., and then simple objects based on them in different positions.

Third, in Geometric drawing with instruments. This would give practice in the working of a number of problems of plane geometry with rules and compasses, which relate to the accurate construction of the geometric figures *previously* drawn *free-hand*, and which form the *basis* for *all* practical work in constructive industry and design.

By the introduction of these three features of (1) *design*, (2) *drawing from objects*, and (3) *geometrical drawing*, the instruction in the Grammar Schools would broaden greatly, and permit an arrangement of exercises adapted to the constantly-advancing powers of pupils until at the end of the Grammar course they should be able to draw with readiness and a fair degree of accuracy, an *outline* representation of *any* simple object they might see, placed in *any position*. They ought also to be familiar with the common problems of plane geometry, which have constant application in the industrial arts, and at the same time possess an understanding of the elementary principles which form the basis of good taste in industrial design.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

On reaching the High Schools, pupils having passed through the stages of study indicated for Primary and Grammar Schools would be prepared to make extended use of the knowledge gained in various directions. They would now be able to *draw* to the extent of their knowledge with as much readiness and facility as to *write*, and they would find constant opportunities to apply their skill in such studies as botany, anatomy, geology, and other sciences, as well as in the study of history, geography, etc.

The definite instruction in the *High-School* course should be a *further unfolding* of the features of design, object and geometrical drawing, begun in the Grammar course. The Geometrical feature should now be broadened to include problems in solid geometry, and the casting of shadows, thus enabling pupils to express with absolute accuracy any facts of form in any position, in which they may be conceived, thus preparing for practical work in the various constructive industrial occupations, such as building construction, machine drawing, architecture, etc.

In the feature of object drawing the instruction could also be greatly widened. Scientific Perspective should now be taken up, which is the science of representing objects as they *appear*, and in this connection it forms a fitting accompaniment to the feature of the geometric drawing of solid forms pursued in this course, which consists of representing objects as they *are*. So that we should have in these two features the science of the *facts* of form, and the science of their *appearance*, and so subtle are these two sciences of geometry and perspective, that a knowledge of them enables us to express with the utmost accuracy both the *fact* and the *appearance* of all forms whatsoever, that are capable of being represented.

In object drawing, next in order to perspective, the elements of *light and shade*, and *color* should be taken up, and practice in drawing from nature, so that in this feature of the High-School course there is a sound preparation for artistic work.

In the design feature there should also be a material advance in the character of the instruction. The introduction of color in the feature of object drawing permits the study of plant forms in their colors as well as their methods of growth, and as all good design is based upon a careful study of natural forms, pupils are now prepared to study nature for motives both in form and color for design. Practice should also be given in reproducing in color choice specimens of historic design, thus developing the taste of pupils, and as the outcome of the instruction in this feature they should be required to produce designs of their own, suitable for industrial purposes.

In the upper classes of the High-School course the instruction should be *largely individual* in character. Some pupils might wish to devote themselves to the mechanical features solely, as a preparation for technical schools, or for practical life, while others might wish to pursue the features of object drawing and design as a preparation for further artistic study. The instruction should be broad enough to admit of a choice on the part of pupils in these respects. Thus we should have as the outcome of the High-School course, and the aim of the scheme:—

First; the development of a fair degree of knowledge of the science of representing *facts of form* for all purposes of industrial and building construction;

Second; the development to an equal extent of the knowledge of the science of representing the facts of form as they appear to the eye, *modified by their position*.

Third; the cultivation of a good taste in Industrial Design, with a fair amount of practice in the composition of original designs for industrial purposes.

Such were the main features of the course of instruction in drawing for public schools adopted by the city of Boston and endorsed by the State Board of Education of Massachusetts seven years ago. In this scheme it will be observed that certain definite results were aimed at in each grade of schools, and that the whole course tended to the development of a broad practical knowledge of the subject as the outcome in the High Schools.

In view of the fact that this effort in Massachusetts was the first attempt ever made to teach the subject of drawing comprehensively, on a thoroughly-scientific and educational basis in *all grades* of the *public schools*, it is now eminently proper (indeed it is a good subject for educational discussion) to enquire as to the results produced by this experiment in Massachusetts, both in their relation to education and their bearing on *practical life*.

I have no doubt it will be readily conceded, that so comprehensive a plan would naturally require several years for its full development. In the first place, the scheme contemplated the teaching of the subject by the regular teachers, and it was necessary therefore, that they should receive instruction in the features to be taught, and at the same time receive some training in the manner of teaching them. Under these circumstances it was not to be expected that the *first* fruits of the effort would be any fair indication of the final results. Eight years however

have now elapsed since the effort began. The State has since founded a Normal Art School for the special training of teachers for teaching drawing, from which institution several hundred students have passed, capable of teaching the elementary features, and many have been employed in the public schools of the State.

As the result of their instruction the public schools of several cities have been enabled to work out many, if not all the different features of the course, so that we are now in possession of sufficient data, to be able to pass judgment upon the practical worth of the instruction thus far given, and at the same time to make some fresh observations in regard to the future bearing or influence of the study of drawing on education in America.

In regard to the results thus far obtained I think it can be truly said that they are such as may well be thought satisfactory to those who worked so earnestly for the introduction of drawing into education, and who, like Dr. PHILBRICK, were wise enough to insist that the instruction should be placed upon an *educational*, rather than an *artistic* basis. Experience has shown that with a proper method of classification and grading, the subject can be as readily and as well taught by the regular teachers as any other subject, in all classes below the advanced High-School classes, while its influence upon the other studies has been of the most beneficial kind. In the schools where the instruction has been the most thorough, where committees have exacted the strictest compliance with the State's requirements, the greatest interest has been shown, and from such schools there come no longer complaints from teachers that they cannot teach drawing understandingly, or that only specially-endowed pupils can learn to draw. The introduction of the feature of industrial design into the course, which in the beginning was regarded as extremely hazardous, if not a wholly impracticable undertaking, has indeed proved a remarkable success. By analyzing this feature and reducing it to its elements and presenting these in a logical, educational order, it has been found possible so to present this exercise to children as to awaken among them a degree of enthusiasm and delight, rarely equalled by any other study pursued in schools, and such a degree of skill and taste in this subject has been shown by pupils in the upper Grammar and High-School classes, that the work produced has excited the liveliest interest among leading European educators, who see in the practice of this feature in our public schools not only a practical means of stimulating and elevating our industrial creations, but at the same time a means which must before many years have a powerful influence in developing the aesthetic taste of the whole people.

In the feature of drawing from objects much valuable experience has been gained. The opinion has been so long and so persistently maintained by many teachers who have looked only at *imitative* results, that object-drawing should *begin* with, and should be constantly practiced from, *natural forms*, that it has been found difficult, save by actual experience, to show that skill and power in *this* particular *must* be based upon a positive knowledge of the *facts* of form in the first instance, and then an understanding of the *modifications* which these facts undergo when viewed by the eye in differ-

ent positions. Applying the general educational truism that progress in all studies should be from the simple to the complex it has been found possible to resolve this feature into distinct stages of growth, so as to be able to have pupils encounter but one stage of difficulty at a time. Experience has shown that at the start pupils have no well-developed power of intelligent or accurate seeing, and they must be taught therefore in the first place how to see, *what to see*, and how to *represent* what they see. In the face of these primal difficulties, the placing before them as exercises the drawing of natural forms, either as flat copies or from the objects themselves, as first practiced, has invariably proved a failure. In some special instances pupils have shown a certain degree of skill in mere imitative work, but there being no solid basis of knowledge behind it, the skill soon exhausts itself in feeble imitation. For purposes of sound information practice in drawing from objects should begin with the study of the *facts* of form embodied in the geometric solids and the *modification*, which these facts undergo when they appear to the eye. With proper explanations these facts and these appearances can be readily explained to pupils in the Grammar Schools, and experience demonstrates that by this method, and this alone can satisfactory results be reached in the feature of representative drawing in public schools.

In the feature of geometrical drawing there has not yet been any adequate development. The introduction of this feature has been opposed more strongly than either of the others, and there still exists in the minds of many teachers and on the part of the general public great misconception in regard to the nature of this feature as well as a want of appreciation of its fundamental importance in any practical scheme of art education.

Drawing in all its industrial applications, both in industrial construction and in industrial design, must be *exact* drawing. Without almost absolute accuracy in describing form, which can be secured by geometric drawing alone, it would be impossible to reach any high degree of industrial skill or taste. Geometrical drawing may be regarded as the sole language of industrial creations, and without a knowledge of it, modern industry could not exist. It is the distinguishing characteristic of this feature that it deals with the facts of form, as they *are*, and in the more advanced stages in the projection of solid forms, it calls for the exercise of the imagination of pupils in the most definite and practical manner, and to an extent not equalled by any other educational study whatever.

Much yet remains to be done before this feature of drawing can be regarded as fully developed in our schools. Many prejudices against it are yet to be overcome, and its great practical worth has still to be repeatedly insisted upon, and now that the claim of the feature of Design, and of object or representative drawing, are generally recognized, and in a measure provided for, I would respectfully urge upon educators and all interested in directing public attention to practical education, that they insist upon additional provisions for instruction in this feature. A knowledge of it is of prime importance as a wage-earning element to every skilful artisan, and art education in its bearing upon industry requires a knowledge of this feature primarily, both as a sure foundation for practical work, and as a basis for both the other features.

In summing up the results of this course of instruction in Massachusetts permit me to quote the testimony of the French Educational Commission on the works exhibited at the Centennial Exhibition three years ago, and I beg to state that this is the first expert criticism we have had on the subject. All the members of the Commission were educational experts, and the Chairman, M. BUISSON, was of the French Educational Commission at the Vienna Exhibition, and has had the fullest opportunity of becoming acquainted with the Art educational movements of Europe.

Extract from the Report of the French Commission in regard to the Exhibit of Drawing from Massachusetts.

"After having examined these numerous works of pupils of all grades, after WALTER SMITH's method, we do not hesitate to recognize its merits and its success. It is surely a remarkable fact to have been able in a few years to get ninety-five per cent of the school population to draw, if not with talent, at least in a passable manner. In saying this, we do not, in our admiration for this result, lose sight of the criticisms to which this method is subject. It has to be kept in mind that it is restricted principally to the study of geometrical elements and decorative drawing. Only the pupils of the high schools—that is, at most a third of the school population—arrive at artistic studies; the others remain too long with the copy and the outline, and commence too late with drawing from the object. (The advance is too slow, the results too uniform and incomplete. The prolonged employment of slates in the primary course, and of the ordinary pencils in the grammar school give to the hand a heaviness and a stiffness which we note in all the later studies). Finally, in retaining the good pupils too long on elementary exercises, the method risks, perhaps, the sacrificing of this minority of excellence, which in all countries is called upon to give direction to the industrial arts, to a less gifted majority. This, however, is always the case when it is intended to initiate into art, not a small number of chosen individuals, but the whole mass of scholars. And this has been and is yet the aim which is pursued in Massachusetts.

We must not forget that it is not proposed to multiply the number of artists, but to create able artisans; not to procure a few talents in harmony with the best well-to-do population, but to give to the thousands of future workmen the sum of knowledge and aptitude which they need to increase the value of their labor, to get a larger price for their work, and finally to enrich and perfect national industry.

"Viewed in this light, the problem has been marvellously well solved by Walter Smith.

"If his method leaves something to be desired, it is that he had to leave it in all haste to the abilities of improvised teachers; but, as soon as the Normal Art School shall have had time to bear fruit, we can predict to the industrial art of Massachusetts new increase and a brilliant future."

The criticisms in this French report are in the main sound. It is to be expected that French critics would look primarily to the æsthetic bearing of the instruction, but this commission were just enough to perceive and definitely to express, what is and what has been the first object in teaching drawing in Massachusetts, that is, for its industrial value.

In regard to the points complained of, most of them are objections which will be removed in time, as our teachers become more familiar with the subject, and school boards provide better facilities and additional materials. On the whole this French criticism is so intelligent and so thoroughly appreciative, that I beg you to listen to another paragraph from it.

"If all these works had been made larger; if they had been made with stump and crayon; if they presented a softer character; if the drawing from the object had been practiced more extensively; if the most simple drawing from living objects had from the first years of the grammar school added an element of composition; if the effects of light, shade, and color, too much neglected, had oftener enlivened and decorated the naked lines,—Massachusetts would have jumped at one bound to a superiority of artistic instruction in the primary grade which the old nations of the European world have not yet been able to attain. But, such as they are, the works of the primary and grammar schools exhibited in Philadelphia offer a very satisfactory whole: they bear witness to the excellence of the method, to the good dispositions of the scholars, as well as to the conscientious direction and intelligent care given to the instruction, with the view of developing the practice of practical, elementary drawing. If we bear in mind that these are the fruits of two years of trial, we must admit that never before have such remarkable results in so short a time been attained."

So much being assumed, it may not be out of place in this connection to refer to certain criticisms which have been made upon this course of instruction. It will be remembered that one of the first and most persistent objections brought forward was the want of an apparent freedom in the instruction, that the work required of the pupils in all stages, was too precise and mechanical in character, that it did not sufficiently appeal to natural forms, and hence did not adequately appeal to, nor tend to develop the imagination, or the taste for the beautiful in children. This criticism was based upon the idea that inasmuch as the elements of the course were founded upon geometry, in fact, as geometry was shown to be the very foundation of the whole plan, and as geometry is regarded, if I may use such a term, as the science of exactness, it was felt that the attempt to reduce the study of drawing in any of its phases to a scientific basis, would result not only in chilling or curtailing the art instincts of pupils, but would tend to develop a mechanical, false, and derogatory idea of art itself.

Criticisms of art educational methods and even of works of art, based upon the idea, that art science is hostile to art development or art power, are so common, and the development of even ordinary skill in drawing and design presupposes the possession of special artistic powers on the part of pupils, that I wish to call attention to what practical experience teaches in these respects. In view of the *peppery warfare* about methods of teaching drawing which breaks out on all sides whenever the subject comes up for discussion, I am led to ask seriously, *what is drawing, and what do we understand as comprised in it?*

Judging from what we frequently see and hear from very learned critics, we might say that drawing is, like writing, a mere matter of manipula-

tive skill with the fingers, which should be developed simply as a means of expression for the use of genius.

And this idea of drawing is a very common one, for we not unfrequently see teachers of drawing chosen, because like teachers of writing they know how to train pupils to do imitative work with their fingers. Drawing in this sense requires but the possession of ordinary nerves of feeling and of sight. Speaking broadly therefore, all children can be taught to draw as well as to write. This is a fact which may now be regarded as settled.

But is this the whole of drawing? As educators, are we content with such a definition? If so, the matter of teaching it might well be relegated to the teachers of writing.

Pardon me for dwelling at this point. So much misconception exists just here and the whole question is so involved in a mist of finger-practice, genius, nature, æsthetics, and science, that our first duty is to come to some general understanding as to what is meant, especially that our first duty is to come to some general understanding as to what is meant, especially in education, by Drawing. The name is a misnomer for what is taught under it. In one sense it is regarded as a language, in another as a science, in another as an art, and the difficulty is that all these features are apt to be mixed up together, and it not unfrequently happens that it is difficult to *distinguish* between what is taught as skill, as language, as science, or as art.

Now if drawing is to come into public education in the fundamental way proposed, it cannot be introduced in this "hurly-burly" mixed-up manner, it must be submitted to a process of educational disintegration, a process which will provide suitable exercises for developing the necessary skill of hand and eye, and a process which at the *same time* will present the language feature in such a manner as to appeal to the *understanding* of pupils and lead them to trace its application in science, in nature, and in art, and also be the means for expressing their *own* ideas in these directions. Drawing therefore becomes a very comprehensive, far-reaching study, and a proper course of instruction in it should teach pupils *what* to draw as well as *how* to draw, and thus the subject is at once lifted above the plane of mere writing, and to the highest significance in education.

If drawing is coming into education in this manner, as a language, with a science and an art back of it, these different features of language, science, and art must be presented in some definite and tangible manner, we must know what is taught as skill and language, we must know what is taught as science, we must know what is taught as art.

I do not think it will be disputed that instruction in drawing, so far as it relates to *skill*, *language*, and *science*, can be distinctly formulated and arranged. The doubt is about the *artistic* feature, and this, in the minds of many people, overshadows all the others.

Criticisms, such as I have referred to, come generally from the artistic side and are made without an acquaintance with the other features, or a knowledge of the requirements of general education, or even of art education itself.

I know it is a very common opinion that beauty which it is the aim of

art to express, is not amenable to rule. I am aware that beauty in its highest manifestation of form eludes exact scientific analysis; but there are forms which are positively ugly, while there are many which are more or less beautiful. The *highest* form of beauty can be appreciated only when we can distinguish the difference between it and *less* beautiful ones, and it would seem therefore that the best and surest way to secure an appreciation of beauty in its highest form would be to develop the power of analyzing it in its lower or simpler manifestation.

Again, art to be of any value, must be the expression of *truth* in regard to *form*. Truth of form requires for its expression a knowledge of both the language and the science of representation. Geometry is the foundation for both the language and the science. If we were to leave Geometry out of the study, we should at once take out the only tangible educational basis it has to rest upon. It is this element in the study which enables us to bring it within the province of education, and elevate the instruction above mere individual caprice, or rule of thumb.

A very superficial observation of what is taught in public schools shows us that only such subjects can be successfully taught to children as possess elements capable of disintegration and formulation and illustration. No subject of education with which I am acquainted is taught in its elementary features by guessing at them. This is so much of an educational truism, that I feel like begging pardon for stating it before an educational body like this; and yet simple and self-evident as is the proposition, we see on every hand claims made for the introduction of drawing as a fundamental element, accompanied with emphatic denunciation of all efforts to place the instruction upon a rational educational foundation.

The time has passed when it may be thought necessary to discuss drawing as a language. If the discussion of the subject for the last few years has done nothing more, it may be said to have accomplished this—secured a recognition for the study as a language, as a means of receiving and expressing thought hardly second to any other language we possess, and as it has been demonstrated that all children can learn to draw as readily as they can learn to write, the real educational problem is:—*What shall they be taught to draw; how shall they apply this language?* This it seems to me is the fundamental question to be decided, and in looking at the results now coming up from the public schools of Massachusetts and from cities in various parts of the country, it is worth while for us as educators to go back of the pleasing lines which represent certain degrees of mere individual skill and taste, and note the nature of the work to which this language is being applied. In applying our language of drawing in industry and in art, we have *two distinct matters* to deal with. We have *facts of form*, and the *modification* which those facts undergo as they appear to the eye. Sound instruction in drawing should educate to a knowledge of the facts as they are, and also to a knowledge of the laws which govern their appearance.

I cannot stop to point out how completely geometry underlies all forms, both natural and industrial. Geometry is the key to all beauty of form whatsoever. But I may be permitted to say that we can never perceive the full beauty of natural forms until we are able to perceive the beauty

of geometric forms. In art, geometry is the known, nature is the unknown. We can intelligently study the latter only through a knowledge of the former. It is upon a full recognition of Drawing as a language, with geometry as the basis of its applications in science and art, that the scheme of instruction in Massachusetts is based.

Speaking from a practical experience of many years in teaching all phases of the subject, and with a full understanding of what European experience for the past fifty years has to show in regard to methods of instruction, I am prepared to maintain that only on the general plan of disintegrating the subject and reducing each feature to its elements, as has been done in Massachusetts, can a sound basis for art education be laid in common schools.

To sum up the whole question I should say that the object of teaching drawing is

First, Utility—its application in industry:

Next, Culture—its application in Art.

The first requires a thorough knowledge of the *facts* of form—the second an equally thorough knowledge of the science of the facts and the laws of their appearance.

In discussing this subject before such an Association, I am loath to confine the presentation to the merely practical, utilitarian considerations involved. The great tendency at the present time is to make our education too material or utilitarian in character, and I should prefer to dwell upon the higher educational, æsthetic, and political considerations which I believe are to flow from this art educational movement which has set in so strongly in America.

I do not think any of us fully realize as yet what an influence it is destined to extend in these directions. Time however does not permit of such discussion, but I cannot close without urging, even against the charge of tiresome repetition, the duty, which is laid upon educators, of insisting upon the necessity of maintaining the *scientific* features of drawing in public education on account of their industrial bearing.

I have said that without this knowledge there could be no industrial development, without a knowledge of drawing as applied in industry modern civilization could not be. No intelligent observer can fail to note the increasing growth of industrial occupations, and the increasing number of people pursuing these occupations. Success in these occupations is coming to depend more and more on a knowledge of the science which underlies the industrial arts. Education, to be practical, must absorb drawing as applied to industry as *one* of its main features, and when this has been done, and *workingmen* can see that as the *outcome* of your system of public education pupils are taught the language of industry as well as the language of trade, commerce, and the professions, they will come to look upon the public schools as the bulwark of their salvation.

As for Art, the culminating expression of a nation's civilization, we may safely leave it to be the outcome of an education which trains to *truth*, *imagination*, and complete means of *expression*. An art which cannot absorb these elements as the basis for its creations, an art which finds science a hindrance to its development is an art which cannot stand.

We have only to remember that MICHAEL ANGELO and LEONARDO DA VINCI were both among the most scientific men of their age, whilst they were also the greatest artists, to see that art and science are closely related and never antagonistic.

From weak and unreasoning people, whether in religion or in art, we hear Science and scientific investigation treated as an iconoclastic monster which is to destroy their creed or their craft; but men with calmer nerves regard Science as a Divine handmaid who will banish superstition and mystery, and substitute for them truth and knowledge.

The art which we should strive after in education is that which goes hand in hand with science, capable of being understood and appreciated by all intelligent people, and it is this phase of the subject which we as educators have to naturalize in this country.

Mr. MONTGOMERY, of Pennsylvania, told of excellent results in drawing in Millersville. Ample time can be *saved* and not affect the study in the other branches injuriously.

Mr. JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Boston, Mass., Commissioner of Education to the Paris Exposition, gave the results of two experiments now in progress in Paris regarding technical education. In one of them, the speaker thought, the chief end of the system was rendered impossible on account of the physical weakness of the boys. A lad of sufficient strength could not be found in the blacksmith shop to wield the hammer. It was the same way among the embryo carpenters—they could not push the plane. In the machine shop, one would work the treadle and another hold the tools. That was the result of one experiment. In the other the boys were larger and stronger, and the system the same as that which, in Massachusetts some seven years ago, was called "the shop in the school." It was a school of applied technical industry. The pupils were taught that which would be of practical immediate value to them in after life; and, although a better judgment could be given after considering more varied evidence, still the results were gratifying.

The nominating committee reported the following officers who were unanimously elected.

For President, Hon. JAS. H. SMART, of Indiana.

For Vice-President, Miss SUSAN E. BLOW, of Missouri.

For Secretary, Miss LELIA E. PATRIDGE, of Pennsylvania.

The persons who engaged in discussions were requested to furnish the secretary with a synopsis of their remarks, but many of them failed to do so, hence the meagre report of what they said.

GEO. P. BROWN, *President.*

W. A. BELL, *Secretary.*

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, JULY 29, 1879.

The Department of Industrial Education of the eighteenth meeting of the National Educational Association met on Tuesday, July 29, at 3 P. M., in the gymnasium of the Normal School, and organized for business.

In the absence of the chairman J. D. RUNKLE, of Boston, Mass., Prof. L. S. THOMPSON, of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind., vice-president, presided.

On motion of ALEX. HOGG, Professor of Mathematics in the Agricultural College, Texas, H. B. WHITTINGTON, Principal of public school in the twenty-sixth ward, Philadelphia, was elected secretary.

The inaugural address was then delivered by the chairman, L. S. THOMPSON,—subject:

EDUCATED LABOR.

The subject of Practical or Industrial Education under several different titles has been thrusting itself into public notice and the notice of teachers' conventions for several years. Those who attended our National Association two years ago at Louisville, Ky., will remember that the great burden of many of the addresses and discussions was the relation of Education to the working classes; I mean those who work with their hands.

Because those who work with their hands and bodies are more numerous than all others put together, and because they are indispensable to the very existence of the human race, and because those who do not need to perform manual labor are generally able to procure such education as they wish outside of the public schools, it is claimed, and justly, we think, that the education given in the people's schools, or as they are sometimes called, "the people's colleges," supported by the people, should be adapted to the wants of labor. We think it one of the favorable signs of the times that in the distribution of the good things of this world the common people are not to be slighted in the matter of education.

In the earlier ages of the world's history, whatever has been considered valuable, such as wealth, power, religion, and learning, has been concentrated in the hands of the few. For thousands of years, the many have been taught that they were created to be ruled by a few favored individuals who were born with the God-given right to govern. For ages the world was taught by the Priesthood that religion was not to be studied

and understood by the masses, but that they, the priests, should interpret and dispense it as seemed good to them. From the beginning of the world there has been an aristocracy of learning who have claimed that education is a dangerous thing in the minds of the common people. In some parts of the earth, at least, these aristocracies of wealth, religion, and learning have been giving way to the true theory; that every man is entitled to the right of following his own enlightened conscience in religion, that he has the right to say in some manner who shall rule over him, that he has the right to receive such compensation for his labor as he may agree to take, and that he has the right to learn any thing in this universe that God has given him the capacity to learn.

Theoretically, in our own country at least, we are said to be free from these ancient tyrannies. Practically, however, we are still somewhat in the toils of former customs and teachings. There is still one kind of freedom at least that we do not fully understand,—the freedom that comes from the highest intelligence. By the diffusion of knowledge, as we find it in our time, the common people are beginning to understand that a knowledge of religion is not the peculiar property of the Priesthood, that authority to rule is not the birthright of a king, and that learning does not belong exclusively to those who are born geniuses. If the masses of the people desire still further freedom from the domineering power of these various aristocracies they must educate both generally and particularly.

In the preceding remarks we have not meant to arraign the course of the world's history. It has no doubt been according to the law of the "survival of the fittest." If men do not know how to rule themselves they should be governed by some one of more intelligence and wisdom than they possess. If men are too weak-minded and ignorant to study and understand religion, it may be better that the Priests should rule over their consciences. If mankind will not educate themselves in a general way, it is inevitable that they will be guided by those who are better educated. Still further, if we choose to be ignorant of the principles of good government, if we are too indolent to think for ourselves what is right or wrong, if we still cry out against learning and education, we ought not to complain if the aristocracies of Caste, the Priesthood, and Culture seize the reigns of power we have invited them to take.

In the education of the people experience proves that we may depend on the opposition of these classes. We have been told that education and labor are incompatible. That if you educate a boy he wont work. That if you educate a girl she will play the lady. We are also told that these persons not only wont work, but that schooling spoils the child of labor; that it really incapacitates him for labor. If this idea were only proclaimed by the avowed enemies of education, but little harm could come of it, but we find frequently the laborer himself joining in the cry for his own destruction. He complains of monopolies that take advantage of his poverty and ignorance, and yet frequently dooms his own children to a life of the same kind.

If it is true that learning unfits a boy or girl for manual labor, why is it that ignorance and idleness are so often found together, while education

and the prosperity that comes from industry are found in company? Why are not ignorant tribes of Indians the most active, industrious, and prosperous of earth's inhabitants? Why are not the Germans a nation of idlers instead of one of the most industrious peoples of the world? But, independent of facts to the contrary, why should learning unfit a child to labor? Does the laborer need only bodily strength? Does he not need the perception to see what is to be done and how to do it? Has he no need of reason? Has he no need of the attention and perseverance that come from overcoming his tasks in the school-room? Dropping the interrogative form we may say positively that education *requires* industry, and it cannot be obtained by idleness. It increases our desires, and our desires are the sources of our activity. It is the rule everywhere that the deepest ignorance is the most likely to be satisfied with rags and dirt, and these are the result of idleness. The educated man in the great majority of cases, desires a home of refinement, and hence he is incited to labor that he may obtain it. In short we are indebted to education and the diffusion of intelligence and virtue for whatever of material prosperity we enjoy. Take away all learning and wealth goes with it. Remove all the inhabitants of a wealthy city and fill their places with Digger Indians, and the land on which it is built will be worth about \$1.25 per acre.

Labor is not only the child of education, but is dependent on it for its skill and productiveness. Education is now more necessary to the laborer than ever before, because the kind of labor required demands skill and knowledge rather than brute force which is more and more supplied by steam and other forces of nature.

Laborers need to be educated because of the competition that everywhere surrounds and consumes them. The time has been if a man were as skilful and intelligent as his immediate neighbor, he had but little to fear. It is not so in our day. Every man must now compete more or less with the whole world. The multiplication of telegraphs, steamships, and railroads has brought the world's skill to the doors of every man. No country is far from us now. In five minutes we may send an order for goods to France, and in two weeks' time display the goods upon our counters. The farmer in the United States must now compete with the farmer in Russia, for every bushel of wheat raised in that country affects the price of wheat in this country. A wagon-maker may be the best in his town or county, but still he is not safe. He must be the best in his State, the best in his country, yea, the best in the world, before he is free from this consuming competition. Whatever of success ignorance and stupidity may have had in the past, let no father suppose that *his* son or daughter in the future can compete with the combined training and talent of the world, without the most careful attention to those studies that have a bearing upon the intended occupation or profession.

We have only to cast our eyes about us to behold some very striking effects of this competition between ignorance and intelligence. For a few years past our country has been overrun with paupers, idlers, and tramps, who seem to have nothing to do, and apparently can get nothing to do. Are they educated or skilled workmen who are obliged to live this kind

of a life? Occasionally an efficient laborer, through sickness, misfortune, or downright dissipation, may be found in this unfortunate class, but you know that the great mass of these idlers and beggars have no skill of hand nor intelligence of mind to bring into market. They cannot be trusted to do anything but the simplest and most unskilled of all labor. So ignorant and inefficient in all useful employments are they, that if they should honestly apply themselves they could scarcely earn their food and clothes at the beginning of their reformation.

In depressing times, when competition in some trades is very great, a practical education if it is as broad as it should be, will enable its possessor to turn his hand to another trade. The division of labor, which is a leading idea of our present civilization, in connection with the invention of labor-saving machinery, while enabling the race to make unbounded strides towards human perfection, is at the same time crushing out the lives of millions of the ignorant and unskilful. One of our difficulties now is, that workmen do not learn principles and practices that might apply to many vocations. They do not even learn the whole of one trade. One man learns to make the head of a pin and is therewith content. Another learns to make the point of a pin. One man learns to cut out a shoe, another to drive the pegs or sew it, and each one learns his little mite in such a way that he is like a machine, constructed in such a manner as to perform but a single operation. If you attempt to make the machine do something else you destroy it. If the maker of pin-heads cannot find employment at his trade he is financially ruined, and instead of attempting to do some other kind of work, he feels justified in turning tramp or calling upon the public for assistance. In order that the pin-maker or shoe-cutter may turn from one employment to another when some machine is invented that performs his little part better and cheaper than he could do it, he must have mind culture as well as hand culture, general education as well as particular education.

We are told that in order to make manual labor more sought by the young, we should hold up to their view the dignity of labor. But in what does the dignity of labor consist? All brain labor is not dignified, nor is all manual labor dignified. The dignity of manual labor depends on the motive—on the amount of thought, intelligence, and skill connected with its performance. The man who digs up his field with a stick instead of a spade, or with a spade, instead of a plow, when he can have his choice of implements, does not demonstrate the dignity of labor. The man who drags his firewood from the forest, on the ground at the end of a rope, when a wagon and horses may be used, does not dignify labor. The way to dignify labor is to show intelligence and skill by taking every possible advantage of the laws of nature and science. If you would make work-reputable elevate the workman. But this cannot be done without education.

One man in his ignorance knows of no way of removing a large stone from his pathway, except by calling in several of his distant neighbors it may be, to assist him by main strength to roll it to one side. Another man who has knowledge performs the same task alone in one-tenth of the time by means of a simple lever. Which one exemplifies the *dignity* of

labor? If the dignity of labor consists in putting forth mere muscular strength, in striking a hard blow, the work of a donkey is as dignified as that of a man, and the work of a mule is much more so. Let the young be taught that there is a true dignity of labor—that which seizes every suggestion of science, and uses it so as to *economize* labor.

The manual-laboring classes sometimes justly complain that they are oppressed by unjust legislation, that their rights are not properly regarded by our law-makers, and that those who are more intelligent than they are take advantage of their ignorance. What is the remedy? Laborers must become law-makers also. How shall they do it? Only by education. If laborers, whether agricultural or mechanical, would compete with other classes of society for the honors and emoluments of the world, they must be educated. Let them educate, and "the sceptre and crown of civil service will return to the plow and pruning hook." "It is by their neglect of learning the farmer and mechanic have lost the power they had in the days of CINCINNATUS and WASHINGTON. If a man would be great he must know. If he would rule, he must understand the thoughts and ways of men. There is but one alternative in this matter. The farmer or mechanic may study and prosper, and rule the world, or he may repudiate education, denounce agricultural schools, and remain the serf and burden-bearer of the nation."

We believe every workman of whatever kind should have an Industrial Education, that is a particular education—one that applies directly to the trade he would follow. But we believe even more in a general education for the laborer, such as is furnished by most of our High Schools. The striking advantage of a general education over that for a special trade, when only one is possible, is shown by contrasting the working mechanics of this country with those of European countries. Until a few years ago the European laborer only had the advantage of the Trade or Industrial Schools. As there were no free or public schools, anything like general culture was not for him. In this country, until within a few years, we had no technical or industrial schools, but our laborers, especially in New England, have had the advantage of the public or common schools which only give general instruction. The activity of mind shown by our workmen is far beyond that of other countries. No other country has produced such ingenious inventions nor so many of them. New England, where general education is perhaps more diffused than in any other portion of the world of like extent, and where technical education has as yet done but little for the laborer, has produced by far the most labor-saving inventions of any people in the world, and the laboring people of this part of our country perhaps are better supplied with comfortable homes than any other people of the same class.

The laborer needs to be a strong man mentally and morally as well as physically. The strong man is the well-balanced man. The well-balanced man must be educated in every direction. It is said that no rope, chain, or piece of timber is stronger than its weakest part. Not even the "Wonderful one-Hoss Shay" could have run "a hundred years to a day" if its parts had not been equally strong.

The problem then that seems to be before the educators of to-day is

How some system of Industrial Education can be incorporated with our excellent public-school system so that general culture and hand culture may be carried along together harmoniously. If this can be done we believe the laborer of the United States will lead the world in ingenuity and handicraft. How this may be done we leave to be considered by the papers and discussions in this Department which are soon to follow.

This was followed by a paper entitled, "The Beginning of Industrial Instruction," by the Hon. M. A. Newell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Baltimore, Md.

THE BEGINNING OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Fifty odd years ago, in one of the leading cities of the United States, about this time of the year, and about this hour of the day, a teacher might be heard calling at the top of his voice, "Sand-class, come up!" The story was told me by one who had been a member of the class. His father was the teacher. It was a long, low, dimly-lighted room; there were some two or three hundred pupils; a small number of slab desks, and a large number of backless benches constituted the furniture; as for apparatus there was a shallow trough, four feet square, filled with sand slightly moistened and nicely levelled off; no maps, no charts, no blackboards, no writing materials, except such as some of the bigger boys carried in their trousers' pockets; one solitary teacher aided by a hickory wand almost as long as himself took care that "order reigned in Warsaw," while a dozen of lads called monitors, somewhat older than the average of their school-fellows, each standing in the centre of a group of fifteen or twenty other lads distributed formal instruction, open rebukes, and secret cuffs, with impartial vigor, under the general orders of the Commander-in-chief. And what was the sand-class? Why, slates being rare and costly and blackboards being unknown or undiscovered, the smooth face of the moistened sand in the shallow trough formed an excellent surface whereon to trace the letters of the alphabet or the elements of any other branch of primary instruction which needed graphic illustration.

This was the only free school in the city, if indeed it could strictly be called free, when the pupils were expected to pay for their instruction at the rate of a penny a week each. And this was the beginning of a great public-school system which to-day, in the same city, numbers its pupils by scores of thousands, and embraces within its scope every grade from the lowest primary to the gates of the University, and the entire range of knowledge from the A B C's to the literature of Greece and Rome, as well as France and Germany.

Why do I recall these things? Not simply to remind you that the public-school system of to-day, as it exists in cities and other centres of comparatively dense population, has its root and origin in the old and almost forgotten Lancasterian school; but rather that you might perceive that this magnificent system of universal intellectual education of which we are so justly proud, had within the memory of men yet living an origin as obscure, a beginning as insignificant, a prospect as discouraging,

a future apparently as uncertain, as the project of industrial education seems to have in the eyes of the less enthusiastic of its advocates. The two systems being not antagonistic but complementary, dealing with the same persons, founded on the same principles, aiming at the same end, supported by the same arguments, opposed by the same sophistries, advanced or retarded by the same social forces, we shall be justified in hoping that like beginnings will be followed by like progress, and end in like development.

It is to this parallelism that I desire more particularly to direct the attention of the Department.

Our common-school system—and I mean more particularly our city school system—was not built up after a preconceived plan and model. It *grew* as a strange plant might grow from strange seed, and men watched its development keenly and curiously. They could have stopped its growth at any moment. They could have torn it up by the roots; but allowing the seed to remain in the ground, they had but little to do in the way of directing or controlling its growth. Some little digging and watering, some little weeding, some little pruning and trimming there must have been of course; but on the whole the plant *grew* in virtue of its own vital force, under the pressure of necessity, under the stimulus of encouragement, under the storms of opposition. From being a mere root in a dry ground it grew into a beautiful and shapely tree. Men wondered when they saw it. This was not what they expected; hardly what they wanted; but there it was and they must make the best of it. It had taken deep root. It had spread wide its sheltering arms. Millions rested happy beneath its shade. A wonderful tree. Not at all like what the planters looked for, but too big and too useful now to be meddled with, except by cutting off, now and then, a useless branch or a decaying limb. Candor compels us to acknowledge that had the planters known beforehand the gigantic proportions to which the Lancasterian infant was to grow under their nursing, they would have felt tempted to strangle the babe in its cradle. Had there been a prophet to warn them that the three R's would blossom into a perfect encyclopædia of Literature and Science; that the one mis-shapen, ill-lighted room would expand into scores of palatial structures; that the primitive log-desks and slab-seats would burgeon into luxuries in ash and walnut fashioned by the deftest of cabinet-makers, after artistic designs which met every requirement of health and comfort and beauty; that the sand-trough, as though rubbed by ALADDIN's lamp, should swell into blackboards and brighten into maps; that the hickory rod itself should bud like that of AARON and bring forth fruit,—globes and telescopes and microscopes and all the apparatus of physical science; and—most wonderful of all that the poor penny a week should be so invested as to yield millions of dollars a year,—the mere announcement of the prophecy would have been sufficient to prevent its fulfilment.

So now at the beginning of this new project of industrial, or, as I should prefer to call it, of manual education, if we are asked to exhibit our drawings and specifications, to put down on paper, by rule and scale, the length and breadth and height of the structure we propose to raise,

to calculate the cost, and to devise the means to raise the money for its erection, we must reply we cannot if we would; we would not if we could.

What then devolves upon us, that we may make a beginning of industrial education possible?

We must prepare the soil, and we must sow the seed. The soil is public sentiment. It is part of the price we pay for liberty that nothing can grow among us unless it is supported by the life-giving and life-sustaining power of public opinion. Looking to the history of common-school education we can recognize three distinct steps in the march of public opinion, and we may expect to make the very same steps on our way to a universal system of manual education.

1st, The recognition of the necessity of universal elementary education. Not the utility, merely, nor the advantage, nor the propriety, but the absolute necessity of educating the intellect of those who are to be the rulers of the republic.

2nd, The conviction that private and individual efforts are totally inadequate to the work of universal education.

3rd, The acknowledgement that the public money may rightfully be used for this purpose; and that under certain circumstances it becomes a duty so to use it.

Industrial education cannot have a beginning until the same propositions are admitted with reference to it.

The education of the hand must be recognized to be just as necessary as the education of the head.

When this is once accepted, the other propositions—the inadequacy of individual efforts and the right and duty of the people in their collective capacity to do what the individual has failed to do will soon become apparent. It does not come within the scope of this paper to argue any of these points in detail. My purpose is principally to indicate the parallelism that may be traced between intellectual education as it began to exist for the masses half a century ago, and manual education which, except in the minds of a few thinking men, can hardly be said to have as yet had a beginning; and from this analogy to derive instruction and encouragement.

The urgent necessity of manual education has not yet been fully admitted; and yet every valid argument in favor of educating the head at the public expense, may be urged with equal force in behalf of the education of the hand. Is it necessary for every free citizen to know how to vote? It is equally necessary for him to know how to earn his living. Is ignorance dangerous to the commonwealth? Equally dangerous is idleness. Does the education of the head prepare a man for the better discharge of his social duties? So does the education of the hand. Is learning the ally of morality and virtue? So is manual labor. Does learning give a man a feeling of independence and self-respect? So does industry. Does learning tend to keep a youth from low company and bad habits? So does industry. Is intellectual training necessary for the full development of personal character? So is physical training. Must our reason be cultivated because it is one of God's best gifts to man, bestowed

on us for this very purpose? The argument applies equally to our bodily powers. Is the *mens sana* a worthy object of the philosopher? It is useless unless placed in *corpore sano*. Are individual efforts inadequate to the support of universal intellectual education? They are equally inadequate to the support of universal industrial education.

In like manner every objection which has been made against manual education has already been urged against intellectual education, and has been weighed in the balances and found wanting.

"It is not the duty of the State; it is the prerogative of the parent; it is impracticable; it is too expensive; it is wrong to take one man's money to educate another man's child; it is communistic in theory; it will lead to other and more objectionable communistic doctrines and practices." All this has been said of intellectual education and has been disproved by the logic of events. The same has been said, or may be said in opposition to manual education and can only be effectually disproved by the same logic.

Arguments are worthless when they are opposed by facts. The logic of HERBERT SPENCER is shivered like a broken lance against the facts of PHILBRICK and HARRIS. In spite of every reason why there cannot be and should not be an effective and universal public-school system, such systems exist. It will be the same with this new enterprise of industrial education. Only give it a beginning. Let it once begin to exist, even on the smallest scale, as an established fact, and all objections will be swept away by the resistless current of events.

It is hard to say when any living thing begins to be. If it is alive it has always been, in a certain sense. I have chosen to represent the Lancastrian School as the beginning of our present city school systems. Some will prefer to go further back; just as they might trace the idea of the steam-engine beyond FULTON and WATT and the Marquis of WORCESTER back to the dim records of scientific antiquity. But the real birthday of the steam-engine was the day when it became known that steam-power could be produced with economy, applied at discretion, and controlled with safety. We need not go back to SOLOMON and MOSES for the idea of our public schools. It began to live just when it was shown practically that children could be cheaply and effectively taught in organized masses. So manual education will then only begin to live, when some BELL, or LANCASTER, or ROBERT RAIKES will show us, not on paper but in a working model, how manual education can be given cheaply and efficiently to masses of young people, such as now attend our public schools. I do not wish to underestimate the difficulty of the undertaking and I have therefore stated the problem in its most general form. What is required is a system of manual training which shall be at once cheap, efficient, and applicable on a large scale. Such a scheme cannot be evolved from one's inner consciousness. It cannot be reasoned out from first principles. But if it cannot be *thought* out, it may be *worked* out by the old-fashioned rule known in obsolete Arithmetics as "Trial and Error." It is said that Russia has already solved the problem. As regards efficiency it may be granted; as regards cheapness and adaptation to large numbers, I am doubtful. But if it has been done let us have a working model in each of our ten largest

cities; not as a perfect pattern but a pattern to be perfected;—an experimental model to be enlarged, altered, improved, reformed, as experience shall suggest.

By whom should this model be set up and set a-going? The natural answer would be, By the public-school authorities. We should certainly strive to obtain their coöperation, but it would be long waiting for them to make the beginning. Their hands are full; they have little time and no money even if they had the inclination to make experiments. Besides they were elected or appointed to a different duty and the impulse must come from the people to their officers not from the officers to the people. When the official canvas is swelled by the breeze of popular opinion the ship will move steadily and rapidly enough through the waters; but we must not depend on official breath for wind.

A beginning must be made; and if we cannot expect it to be made by the public, our dependence must be on private enterprise and the philanthropy of associated individuals.

When private benevolence shall have shown that the scheme is practicable, and the public conscience shall have been quickened to a sense of its necessity, the authorities will not long hesitate about adopting it officially. Can money be obtained for such a purpose? Look at the thousand channels through which the healing waters of organized charity are now flowing, and doubt if you can the capacity of the reservoir to supply one streamlet more. The benevolence of the American people is practically inexhaustible. Were there no further demands upon it at home, the waste gates would have to be opened that the surplus might escape to the shores of Africa or to the islands of the sea. What is wanting is not *means*, but faith; faith founded on knowledge; not knowledge of an abstract or general character, but a burning conviction that will bring forth the proper fruits of knowledge.

Men must know and feel that we have now arrived at a crisis in our social condition; that as man cannot live by bread alone, so neither can he live by the learning of the schools alone; that the possession of a good common-school education which was once so rare as to be a mark of distinction is now so common as to be noticed only when it is wanting; that a college diploma is no longer a recommendation (but sometimes a disqualification) for a position requiring the exercise of high manly faculty; that the abuse of our wonderful facilities for elementary and secondary education has flooded the country with teachers, lawyers, doctors, clerks, salesmen, runners, and petty traders; that a false social sentiment has increased the evil by perversely making a discrimination in favor of the man that lives by his wits and against the man that lives literally by the sweat of his face; so that if our manufacturing establishments and other great industrial works were obliged to depend exclusively on native American labor one half of them would have to close their doors; that in the train of our immense army of *bona-fide* producers and distributors there is following another army of hungry camp-followers, without either the hands to produce, or the head to distribute, but with stomachs that must be filled at the expense of honest producers and distributors; that this army is daily increasing in numbers and acquiring strength by organiza-

tion ; we have now companies, we shall ere long have regiments of tramps, bummers, loafers, roughs, gamblers, and professional ward politicians.

The people must be made to feel and know that against organized idleness and vice there is but one sure protection,—the organization of skilled and honorable labor. The common school can no longer save us, unless it is supplemented by the common workshop. The rewards which at the beginning of the century were promised to good scholarship, must now be paid to good workmanship founded upon sufficient scholarship. The battle of the schools must be fought once more, but this time for the training of the hand in addition to the cultivation of the intellect. Of old it was claimed that parents had a right to bring up their children in ignorance if they chose ; but public opinion said, No ! for ignorance in the masses means death to the commonwealth. To-day you will be told that parents have a right to bring up their children in idleness if they choose. But the *vox populi* will again be heard to thunder, No ! for the idleness of the masses would be fatal to the republic. It was said of old in relation to elementary education, Let it alone ; it will regulate itself ; men are moved by self-interest, and it is the interest of parents to educate their children ; the parental relation must not be assumed, parental functions must not be discharged, by the State ; if the State should teach children to read it would be equally bound to supply them with literature on which to exercise their faculty after they had learned to read ;—which would be agrarianism, communism, Fourierism, or some worse *ism*.

But all this special pleading was answered by a simple statement of fact. The parents did not educate their children. According to all the rules of the political and social economists they ought to have done so, but in fact they did not. The State, then was obliged to step in and perform the duties which the parents had neglected. Call that communism if you please.

In like manner though interest and duty and parental affection all combine to enforce on parents the duty of bringing up their children to some form of productive labor, yet the obligation is largely disregarded, and the neglect is greatest just where it can be most hurtful—in our large cities. But the safety of the country demands the suppression of idleness and the encouragement of industry by elevating manual labor to its proper rank among human employments ; and the State must for her own protection assume the responsibilities which the parent has disregarded.

We are not to be frightened by the cry of communism ; by the warning, which is intended as a threat, that if the State teaches young men to work, the State must also furnish work and pay wages to the graduates of its own creation. It can hardly be doubted that the supply of skilled workers will in the long run create a demand for skilled labor. But should it be otherwise, should the warning prove to be a prophecy, it should not drive us from our position. Better far the cry for honest labor and its wages in lawful money than that other and more fearful cry which so often rang through the streets before the downfall of Rome, "*Panem et Circenses*."

In conclusion, what is the duty of the hour ? What can practical teachers and directors of educational affairs do to aid in this beginning of industrial education ?

1. We can aid in the dissemination of sound theoretical views on this subject, using the newspaper and the periodical press as our instruments.

2. We can insist that drawing (which holds the same place in industrial as reading does in intellectual education) shall be efficiently taught in every school and in every grade.

3. Those forms of practical work which can be introduced into our present schools without causing confusion should be encouraged. It is hard to find work of this kind for boys. Probably some kind of wood-cutting might be done as a home exercise instead of the burdensome and useless memory tasks. But girls can be taught to sew, darn, knit, patch, cut, and fit, in a series of practical lessons as closely graded as the lessons in a series of Reading-Books.

Lastly, we may be able to aid in establishing, in one or more cities where the means can be procured by private subscription, a workshop after the Russian model, which for industrial training shall be to the graduate of the elementary school what the High School or College now is for intellectual training.

All this being accomplished we may not even have made a real beginning of manual education, for that cannot be achieved without a long and hard-fought battle, but we shall have made a reconnoissance in force, which will reveal the strength of the enemy's position and show us where to plant our guns and how to marshal our forces.

President WHITE, of Purdue University, Indiana, opened the discussion as follows:

The suggestive paper to which we have listened presents hopefully the possibilities of an industrial system of education. It wisely omits the advocacy of any special method of its development. It is perhaps enough to say that when there is an intelligent demand for industrial training, it will be met. We have now only the beginning of such a demand, and it is too early to do more than outline the coming system. The American people are awakening to the fact that skilled labor is competing for the markets of the world, and that American labor must increase its skill or retire from the contest. We are beginning to realize the decay of the apprenticeship system, and to see that technical and trade schools are an industrial necessity; that the means of acquiring technical knowledge and skill must be put within easy reach of the American laborer.

How can this be done? The paper suggests that the elements of needed industrial training can be given in the public schools; that the course of study should include industrial drawing, which underlies all mechanical art, and instruction in such arts as are of general interest, as sewing and cooking. While I heartily approve of this position, may I venture the opinion that only the elements of industrial training can be given in the public school. Its comprehensive function is to provide a general preparation for all pursuits, and, as a rule, it cannot furnish special training for given pursuits. In homogeneous communities the elements of a

common occupation may be easily taught. In the country the course of study may include the elements of agriculture and horticulture. But all this will come far short of what American industry demands.

What is needed is an efficient system of industrial training to supplement the public school, and the indications of growth in this direction are evident. In Europe nearly every line of industry has its special schools. The higher technical institutions are often directed and maintained by government, and art and trade-schools are often supported by municipalities. Most of the schools which teach industrial arts and trades are, however, supported by societies or individuals. I see no reason why there may not be a similar development of industrial schools in this country. A beginning has been made in the industrial colleges founded by Congress, and in the few technical schools established by the bequests of individuals. Business colleges, schools of telegraphy, etc., are in nearly all business centres. These technical and trade-schools will increase with the demand, and it will not take many years to establish and equip an efficient system of industrial training.

I have little expectation that the workshop will ever have an important place in the public school, but I do expect to see public instruction have a more direct relation to industry. When industrial schools come, it will be easy to adjust the public school to the supplementary system. I have long held that the interests of both education and industry would be promoted by the adoption of half-time courses of study, running parallel with the present full courses. Such narrow courses would permit pupils to spend one-half of each day in the public school, and the other half in the trade school, or in the workshop, or in some other employment. Many children must work a part of the time while they are obtaining an education, or they must give up school. When a popular demand for these readjustments of the public school comes, there will be found an easy way to make them.

Permit me, in conclusion, to utter a protest against that advocacy of technical training which disparages and denies the industrial value of general education. There was not a word of this folly in the paper. The productive power of intelligence has long been well attested. The inquiry made by HORACE MANN, and more recently repeated by Commissioner EATON, furnished conclusive evidence on this point, and all the great world expositions have been impressive proofs of the truth that "the hand is another hand when guided by an intelligent mind." The public school has done and is doing more to promote industry than any mere industrial training can ever accomplish. School instruction needs to be *supplemented* (not supplanted or subverted) by industrial training.

The discussion was continued by JOS. M. WILSON, Washington, D. C., who took the ground that manual instruction should be incorporated in all our common schools, and that mental and manual culture should always go together.

This gentleman was followed by H. B. WHITTINGTON, of Philadelphia, who gave a brief history of the plan and organization of the "Société du Patronage des Apprentis de Grenoble, France," and explained how this institution might be modified so as to make it practicable in America.

in connection with our common schools. The speaker stated that the pupils embraced both sexes, and were admitted into the elementary schools at the age of six years. After requiring a knowledge of Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, at the age of thirteen years they were removed from the Primary Schools, and pursued a technical course having direct reference to the trade or calling to which they at this time were apprenticed, spending a portion of each day in the factory or workshop, and not less than three hours per day in the training-school. In these technical schools some studies, such as drawing and mathematics, were common to all, but special attention was given to those branches of Physics having a more immediate connection with the particular calling to which the pupil was apprenticed—thus the pupil who was apprenticed to the trade of a dyer made the study of Chemistry a specialty. These young craftsmen were also given practical instruction in the nature of the raw materials used in their particular trade—where and how produced. The securing of places for these pupils in the workshop and factory was accomplished in the following manner:—In connection with the municipal authorities to whom the administration and support of the “Société” was entrusted, there is a “Board of Patrons” composed of men and women prominent in the various manufactures and handicraft pursued in the city. This Board of Patrons is intrusted with the supervision of the schools, and each member becomes as it were the guardian of one or more of the pupils, and when the proper time arrives, either takes the pupils as apprentices in his or her factory or workshop, or provides places for them and retains the supervision over them until the pupils complete their apprenticeship, which takes from seven to nine years. Another feature of the institution is that once a year each pupil is required to write a paper on some subject relating to his profession or trade, and all such papers exhibiting excellence or progress are rewarded with suitable prizes in accordance with their merits. The Board of Patrons is composed of the best citizens, men and women who have attained distinction in their particular callings, as for instance in the Board at Grenoble are found such members as M. ARMAND CALVART and his wife, whose reputation as manufacturers are known throughout France—and whose goods find a market in both Europe and America.

Now all that is necessary to make such a plan practical in America is for some of our public-spirited master mechanics and manufacturers to take hold of this matter, and I think they will find the school authorities ready to co-operate with them; for there is no doubt that the time has arrived when our common schools will be called to assist in solving the great “Labor problem,”—and the question “What shall we do with our boys?” must be met; and since the old apprenticeship system has passed away the incorporation of Industrial and Art Instruction in our common schools has become a necessity.

Mr. SHELLEY, of York, Pa., then made a few remarks, and introduced JOHN HITZ, of Washington, D. C., Consul-General of Switzerland, who read a paper on the plan and organization of “A Home for Boys and Girls,” in Kent, England, entitled,

DESTITUTE CHILDREN.

"The most effective means to dispel wretchedness is to let the light of knowledge and love of use penetrate its recesses."—ANON.

The Home for Little Boys in Kent.—Old-Boys' Day.—Its Industrial Features.

The Bakery, Shoemaking, Paint Shop, Machinery, Printing-Office, Steam Laundry, Tailor and Carpenter Shops, Needleroom and Store—Farm—School-house and Chapel—The Children's Cottages—their arrangements—Father and Mother—How to earn, save, and spend money—Are we guilty of neglect?

As third and last article on institutions for the care and training of dependent children, I now propose to give a brief account of a visit made just one year ago to the delightful "Home for Little Boys," in Kent, England. Were also girls and not only boys admitted, it might justly be termed in every respect a model institution of its kind, although only its educational and not its industrial department is under the management of the Public-School Board. This institution was founded in 1864 by a committee believed to have been of the School Board of London.

It first occupied an old building formerly used as a parish workhouse, at Tottenham, where fourteen boys not over ten years of age were provided for. In less than two years these inmates had increased to over ninety, and the pressure for further admission was so powerful that it became imperative to provide more suitable quarters. The present location in Kent, near Farmingham Station, on the line of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railroad, some fifteen miles from London, and embracing an area of nineteen acres, was selected. It was decided at the start to adopt the so-called "family" or Cottage System, both on account of the lack of funds to erect a large institutional structure, but more especially on account of the far greater facility it afforded of imparting to the place the real comforts, attractions, and advantages of a "Home."

In 1866 the first building was erected and from year to year others have been added thereto, until on the occasion of my visit in June last, I found ten brown stone cottages, containing over three hundred inmates, besides ample and substantial workshops, storehouse, school-room, and commodious chapel.

In the absence of Mr. A. O. CHARLES, the Superintendent, his able assistant Mr. W. J. C. DAY, conducted me around. First on entering the premises, which at a distance resembles some well-to-do suburban settlement, stood a very cosy little structure called the "Old Boys' Lodge," donated, I was told, by some unknown benefactor, and intended expressly as the temporary home of boys who have creditably left the institution and occasionally return to pay short visits. It has its reception and reading-room, library, dormitories, and other conveniences, and annually on what is called "Old-Boys' Day," when all who have left the institution and conveniently can, meet to greet each other and the dear and only home of their childhood, its walls are filled with grateful hearts and resound to the echo of many a happy voice.

After resting awhile in the reception-room of the Superintendent, adjacent to his offices, and partaking of some refreshments, I first visited the

Bakery, where, assisted by several boys, I found the master baker busy preparing sundry "extras" in the shape of cakes for the approaching "Old-Boys' Day."

Next the *shoemaker's shop* was visited and several boys found at work under a competent master. Not only was mending done but some *excellent* new work shown. Each boy in the institution, I was told, is allowed, according to the work done, from two to three pairs of shoes a year exclusive of mending.

The *paint shop* was then looked into where a master painter and boys attend to all the painting required on the premises.

Next was inspected the *steam-engine* building, where an excellent engine of eight-horse power furnishes what motive power is wanted, and in the absence of springs or running water pumps from a well 120 feet deep all the water used on the premises. The engine-room with its two fine boilers and handy forge attached, was found in marvellously perfect order and reflected great credit on the engineer and his boy assistants in charge.

I then stepped into the *printing-office* adjacent, and was surprised at the perfection of its arrangement. There stood eight cases with the best and newest founts of type, one large "BREUNER" press and three of smaller patterns. Tracts, leaflets, reports, quarterly magazines, and handbills for neighboring tradesmen, are done here in a most superior manner, and like an expert who had preceded me I was astonished at the style of work turned out, the technical skill and good taste displayed. The boys who leave this printing-office I felt certain would find no difficulty in obtaining employment.

The *steam laundry*, close by, contains five superb boilers, one washing-machine, one centrifugal dryer, wringers, steam mangles, and a steam drying arrangement for use during wet or damp weather,—all of which are operated by boys under a male superintendent and female assistant.

Adjoining is a most invaluable structure, a *swimming bath* from two to four feet deep, and twenty-five feet square, where 90 boys bathe every evening in squads of 30 at a time under the eye of a swimming master.

The temperature of the water can readily be regulated and skylights of colored glass are introduced to neutralize the otherwise deleterious effects of the sun's rays on the chalk or limestone water of the locality.

Near by, ascending one flight of stairs, I entered the *tailoring shop*. Ten boys were at work under a master, cutting, making up, and pressing new cloth suits, and repairing old ones, several sewing-machines being in use. From two to four suits a year are allowed each boy in the institution according to the labor he performs, corduroy material to work in, and tweed for Sunday and holiday wear.

At the *carpenter shop* I found a master workman and four boys employed. As yet no steam-power had been used, but it was contemplated to introduce the same in the new shop about to be erected. Some fine specimens of sash made by the boys were shown, also some excellent dovetailing, and here, too, are made those neat little trunks with handy drawers and locks, to contain the outfit of every boy leaving the Home.

I next entered the *needlework room* close to the Superintendent's house.

Here a lady was in charge superintending a number of boys busy at shirts, others mending, knitting, and attending the two sewing-machines used—rather pleased to have their work examined and evidently not finding it irksome.

The new *warehouse* nearly finished had the first floor already occupied as a *store*, very conveniently fitted up with drawers and shelves made by the boys. This store is conducted by a storekeeper and boy assistants on strict business principles, and not only furnishes supplies to the “Home” and its inmates but also to the neighborhood. It was well stocked with goods usually found in a good country store. In the basement most excellent storage arrangements and the second floor used for a like purpose, but so constructed that it could easily be cleared and made to serve as a hall for entertainments.

The *school-house*, a fine building to accommodate 200 pupils at a time, was the gift of friends in Bradford, and in their honor called *Bradford School*. Boys under ten years of age attend six hours and all older ones three hours daily, and the balance of time exclusive of recreation and sleep being devoted to work on the farm or in their respective shops, not continuously, however, as the working boys are divided into two gangs and daily relieve each other at stated periods. I found two male and two female teachers giving instruction and also a Kindergarten department. The rooms were so arranged that two could readily be thrown into one. Maps, charts, anatomical illustrations, specimens of natural history, and philosophical instruments, etc., seemed abundantly supplied. The singing was excellent.

Towards the further end of the premises the *farm* is located, where about a dozen boys are constantly employed. Horses, cows, and pigs are tended with persistent care,—and the little farm-yard kept in most commendable order. Vegetables and small fruits cultivated and most other work usually done on farms attended to.

Apart from the main cluster of buildings stands a neat cottage called the *Infirmery* in charge of a Matron—who with her single patient confined by a slight abscess—seemed rather lonely but nevertheless cheerful.

The *Chapel* occupies a prominent site, is of Gothic architecture, and I should judge would seat some 500 persons, contains a large, fine-toned reed organ, and on Sundays, I am told, is frequented by many persons residing in the neighborhood.

One of the most interesting features of the institution is the “Family” plan adopted in lodging and boarding the inmates. There are ten two-story so-called cottages, each an architectural gem in its way, and named after their donors, or in honor of some devoted friend. A charitable lady gave one—after whom it is named. Another was erected as a memorial to her deceased husband by a devoted wife and named after him, whilst a third is the gift of a London congregation which named it “Quiet Resting-Place,” a fourth is the gift of the children of England and fitly called “The Children’s Cottage”—and so on, gradually one after another has been added and likely will continue to be as the good work near a feeder like London has virtually only begun.

Each cottage accommodates 30 boys and is in charge of a so-called *father* and *mother*—usually an elderly married couple—who live with their somewhat large charge in every respect *en famille*, take meals with the children, read and pray with them just as parents would—the *father* at the same time being at the head and in charge of one of the industrial departments. On the first floor of these cottages one finds a cosy sitting and reception-room with bay-window—supplied with various evidences of culture and refinement. Adjoining there is a tidy-looking dining-room and attached a neat kitchen furnished with range and other conveniences. A play-room for the boys, a bath- and wash-room, pantry and closets, complete the apartments on the first floor. On the second floor one finds the father and mother's chamber, the clothes closets, and three dormitories each containing 10 of the "institution bedsteads" with endless sacking bottom so arranged as to enable pillows to be dispensed with.

A *Savings-Bank* has been established for some time—less however it would seem to encourage hoarding than to teach the *use* of money. Occasionally excursions are arranged but the boys must contribute their shilling or more as the case may be. Thus the habit of "self-help" is inculcated which in institutional life is so apt to suffer, and boys learn to realize that recreation costs money as well as time. Therefore the ability to *earn* money is provided for when the boys reach the age of thirteen and have attained to the so-called fifth standard in school. They are then placed at work all day and attend school at night, or rather after working hours—the period of labor thus being much the same as when they shall have left the institution. They are then allowed about six cents a week for pocket money provided reports from workshop, school, and home as to conduct are satisfactory. Thus these boys are practically taught to *earn*, *save*, and *spend* money, on the right doing of which will in a great measure depend their future happiness and success in life.

Just as I was about leaving the boys came marching along in sections from their several cottage homes on their way to work or school. Unattended save by a monitor who led off, they filed by, politely saluting. Their happy faces there and then, their attractive surroundings led me to think what they might be had the Home in Kent not opened its doors to them—and I wondered if they had sisters and what had become of them. After thus being shown what has been done elsewhere for the enforced youthful associates of misery, wretchedness, and crime, I ask is the limited support extended to the "Industrial Home School of the District" the most we can do at the National Capital in this direction, or do not the words of the poet apply also here?

"Those others, lean and small,
Scurf and mildew of the city,"—
Spot our streets, convict us all
Till we take them into pity."

This closed the discussion, and on motion the chairman appointed the following committee on nomination for officers, to report the following day: Prof. ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, E. A. SPRING, of New Jersey, and FRANK ABORN, of Cleveland, Ohio.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 30, 1879.

At the second afternoon session of this Department, EDWARD A. SPRING, sculptor, of Perth Amboy, N. J., addressed a large audience on Industrial Education, illustrating his remarks by modelling in clay while he talked. He had a kit of soft clay of a drab color, with scratchers and all the necessary apparatus for doing his work, from the modelling of a woman's head to making a prairie dog. After the work got under way the room rapidly filled, until there was barely standing room, and Mr. SPRING so monopolized the interest of his audience that they would not let him stop, but kept him at the work all the afternoon. Sometimes questions would be put to him, which he always answered.

He manipulated the clay and kept up a running lecture all the while. His demonstrations mainly applied to industrial education as the basis of all knowledge of form in its relations to matter. There was hardly anything known but was related in some way to form; hence the use of a plastic substance was the true way to demonstrate the elementary principles of the subject. He first gave illustrations in solid geometry, then described the nature of clay and the practical points of its use. He demonstrated some principles of life and growth by modelling several animal forms, and then varied the exercises by reading the following brief paper:

"In beginning clay work in our present schools, it would be well to start with very small quantities, each scholar having the same form, and at once give habits of neatness and precision of touch. Many interesting and instructive exercises in geometry can be done by a few careful touches of the fingers to shapes of clay not much larger than beans. By this means the nature of the material and certain properties of matter generally can become a part of each one's knowledge, and by this means some of the dullest pages of our text-books will become illuminated with pleasant associations. One of my pupils, after fifteen minutes on a certain exercise, exclaimed: "Well, I never could understand cube root before, though I have been several times over that part of the arithmetic." There is more than one bridge, the keystone of which might be easily made of clay. The enthusiasm and delight that are very common, and the intense application to the work in almost every case, even by the babies, are natural indications of the hold it takes upon the mind, and of the wisdom of using such strong instinctive tendencies in education."

Then taking up a piece of clay, with a few turns of the hand he shaped something on a block. Holding it up the audience readily recognized several small prairie dogs, standing erect, as they may be seen in the Zoölogical Garden any day. A few more turns of the hand shaped something else which the audience did not recognize so easily. They were two owls, more diminutive than the dogs. Beyond them was another object more readily recognized. It was a serpent. Holding the block up

before the audience, with these living forms represented thereon, Mr. SPRING informed his hearers that they were a group familiar to all who had travelled over the Union Pacific Railroad—prairie “gophers,” with their good friends, the burrowing owls, and a rattlesnake beyond.

Venerable Scientist—Does the rattlesnake gopher the prairie dog?

Out of respect for the ladies present, the venerable scientist was not put out, and the sculptor, turning his face to the blackboard for a moment, dropped the subject of prairie dogs and began to model a woman's head. This was particularly interesting. Taking up a large mass of clay he flung it against the blackboard, repeating the operation several times, until he had quite a little mound of earth there. Previously he had drawn the outline of a human face on the board with chalk. The clay was thrown against the centre of this. With his hands he then began to reduce the shapeless mass of clay to a human face. In this the audience watched him with breathless interest. When his work had progressed far enough to make it a pretty good specimen of a human face, without, however, any definite signs, as to the sex, the sculptor humorously suspended work and, turning to the audience, asked them which they would have, a man's head or a woman's head. There was a breathless and embarrassing silence.

Sculptor—All in favor of making it a man's head, raise their hands.

The venerable scientist, raised his hand just about an inch, looked at a seat full of other venerable scientists beside him, whose hands were planted rigidly in their laps, then in some haste dropped his hand again and looked straight at the floor. Not a hand went up.

“All in favor of making it a woman's head, raise their hands,” said the sculptor.

Every hand in the room went up, women's included. The sculptor laughed and turned to the blackboard.

Then he began to trim down the chin, reduce the nose, and to soften and tone down the features generally.

“Too much strength in that chin for a woman,” he said, explanatorily, as he began to carve it down.

Venerable Scientist (innocently)—I thought that was where a woman's strength always lay.

At this point a man was noticed to grasp for a chair, but somebody was sitting on it and he failed to get it. The excitement was only temporary, however, and in a few moments quiet had been restored sufficient for the sculptor to resume work. It turned out to be the head of a very good-looking woman in the end, and everybody admired it. This closed the exercises of the afternoon, in which all present had been greatly interested.

The entire session having been occupied by Prof. SPRING, the paper of Prof. ALEX. HOGG was postponed until the following day, and was read before the General Association.

The committee on nomination made the following report which was on motion adopted. Officers to serve for the ensuing year: *President*—E. E.

WHITE, President of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind. ; *Vice-President*—ALEX. HOGG, College Station, Texas ; *Secretary*—H. B. WHITTINGTON, 1320 Jackson Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

On motion, adjourned.

The Department met on Thursday afternoon at 3 o'clock at the Permanent Exhibition Building—but owing to the many attractions of the place, adjourned immediately after assembling.

HENRY B. WHITTINGTON, *Secretary*,
1320 Jackson St. Phil., Pa.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

The Department met in Washington City Dec. 11, and 12, 1877, and also in the same place Feb. 4, 5, and 6, 1879.

The Proceedings of these meetings have been published by the Bureau of Education in Circular No. 2, 1879, filling 175 pages, to which is added an appendix of 14 pages, containing the Proceedings of the Conference of the Presidents and other Delegates of the State Universities and State Colleges, held at Columbus, Ohio, Dec. 27, and 28, 1877.

This 192-page pamphlet is not the property of the National Educational Association, and hence cannot be bound with this volume and sent to members.

PHILADELPHIA, JULY 31, 1879.

The Department of Superintendence was called to order at 3:30 P. M. in Room No. 6 of the Girls' Normal-School Building, by Dr. J. P. WICKESHAM, its President, to elect officers for the ensuing year.

M. A. NEWELL, of Maryland, was elected President.

N. A. CALKINS, of New York, Vice-President, and

S. A. BAER, of Pennsylvania, Secretary.

On motion adjourned to meet in Washington, D. C., but the time of meeting was left to the officers in connection with Gen. EATON.

CONSTITUTION
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION:

[As Amended July 11, 1876.]

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

§ 1. It shall consist of five Departments: the first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools; and the fourth, of Higher Instruction, and the fifth of Industrial Education.

§ 2. Other Departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

§ 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution; and he may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of two dollars. On his neglect to pay such fee, his membership shall cease.

§ 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

§ 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life-member by paying at once, twenty dollars.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

§ 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Counsellor for each State, District, or Territory represented in the Association, and the officers charged with the administration of their respective departments. Any friend of

education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or on his behalf.

§ 2. The President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, Counsellors, Life-Directors, and presiding officers of their respective departments, shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

§ 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen.

§ 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

§ 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the First Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro-tempore* Chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

§ 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors; and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign; and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

§ 7. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Committee of Finance; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association, and shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. He shall give bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

§ 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in its power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

§ 9. The Board of Directors shall appoint three trustees into whose hands shall be placed for safe keeping and investment, all funds which

the Association may receive from the creation of life-directorships, or from donations, unless the donors shall specify other purposes for which they may be used. The income of such funds so invested shall be used exclusively in defraying the expense of publishing the annual volume of the Association, unless the donors shall specify otherwise. The Board of Directors shall require such trustees to give to the Association their joint bond in a sum equal to twice the amount of such trust fund as may be in their hands.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

§ 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

§ 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

§ 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

§ 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place, and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

§ 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

§ 6. Each new Board shall organize on the day of its election. At this first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-Laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations; one on Honorary Members; and one on Resolutions.

2. The President, First Vice-President, and Secretary, shall constitute a Committee on Finance.

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

4. No paper, lecture, or address, shall be read before the Association or any of its departments, in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address, be published in the volume of proceedings without the consent of the Association in each case.

MEMBERSHIP
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

LIST OF LIFE-DIRECTORS.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Phelps, W: F., Winona, Minn., White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

LOUISVILLE, 1877.

Marshall, T. Marcellus, Glenville, W. Va.

LIST OF LIFE-MEMBERS.

[Addresses have been changed from last year only in cases in which the change comes under the positive knowledge of the Secretary.]

OGDENSBURG, 1864.

Barnard, Henry, Hartford, Conn.,	Hagar, D. B., Salem, Mass.,
Bradley, P., Lyons, N. Y.,	Pennell, C. S., St. Louis, Mo.,
Cruikshank, J., Brooklyn, N. Y.,	Richards, Z., Washington, D. C.,
Danforth, Edward, Elmira, N. Y.,	Wells,* D. F., Iowa City, Iowa,
Eberhart, J. F., Chicago, Ill.,	White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

HARRISBURG, 1865.

Greene, S. S., Providence, R. I.,	Sheldon, W: E., Boston, Mass.,
Hartshorn, O. N., Mt. Union, Ohio,	Wickersham, J. P. Harrisburg, Pa.
Ingram, S. D., Harrisburg, Pa.,	

INDIANAPOLIS, 1866.

Curran, U. T., Sandusky, Ohio,	Mayhew, Ira, Albion, Mich.,
McRae, H. S., Muncie, Ind.,	Norris,* John A., Columbus, Ohio.

CLEVELAND, 1870.

Arey, Oliver, Cleveland, Ohio,	Williams, Mrs. Delia A., Delaware, O.,
Allen, Ira W., Lake Forest, Ill.,	Manly, R. M., Richmond, Va.,
Cole, W. H., Marysville, Ohio,	M'Guffey,* W. H., University of Va.,
Crosby, Wm. E., Davenport, Iowa,	Phelps, W: F., Winona, Minn.,
Hoyt, J. W., Madison, Wis.,	Read,* Daniel, Columbia, Mo.,
Hoose, J. H., Cortland, N. Y.,	Rickoff, A. J., Cleveland, Ohio,
Hobbs, B. C., Annapolis, Ind.,	Stone, Mrs. M. A., New Milford, Ct.,
Heywood, C. W., Chester X Roads, O.,	Tourjee, Eben, Boston, Mass.,
Holden, L. E., Cleveland, Ohio,	Wilcox, M. C., Boston, Mass.,
Jones, D. W., Boston (Higl's), Mass.,	White, E. E., Lafayette, Ind.

* Deceased.

ST. LOUIS, 1871.

Anderson, John J., New York, N. Y., Box 1619.

BOSTON, 1872.

Stone, E. M., Providence, R. I.

ELMIRA, 1873.

Haines,* Miss Henrietta B., 10 Gramercy Park, N. Y.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Armstrong, Allen, Sioux City, Iowa,	Marshall, T. M., Glenville, W. Va.,
Beals, S. D., Omaha, Nebraska,	Nelson, C. K., Annapolis, Md.,
Bell, W: A., Indianapolis, Ind.,	Newell, M. A., Baltimore, Md.,
Brooks, Edward, Millersville, Pa.,	Richmond, Sarah E., Baltimore, Md.,
<i>Cruikshank, Jas.</i> , Brooklyn, N. Y.,	Rollins, Jas. S., Columbia, Mo.,
Dorna, G. Videla, New York, N. Y.,	Rounds, C. C., Farmington, Me.,
Forbes, Alex., Cleveland, Ohio,	Schmitz, J. Adolph, Lake Forest, Ill.,
Hancock, John, Dayton, Ohio,	Stevens, M. C., Lafayette, Ind.,
Harris, W: T., St. Louis, Mo.,	<i>Stone, Mrs. M. A.</i> , New Milford, Conn.,
Henkle, W: D., Salem, Ohio,	Thompson, L. S., Lafayette, Ind.,
Laws, S. S., Columbia, Mo.,	<i>White, E. E.</i> , Lafayette, Ind.,
Malone, J. R., Dallas, Texas,	<i>Wickersham, J. P.</i> , Harrisburg, Pa.

LOUISVILLE, 1877.

Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville, Ky.,	Kalfus, Miss Anna I., Louisville, Ky.,
Burleson, R. C., Waco, Texas,	Mills,* Caleb, Crawfordsville, Ind.,
Fish, J. M., Little Rock, Ark.,	Monsarrat. Mrs. L. L., Louisville, Ky.,
Franklin, M. B., Grapevine, Texas,	Smart, J. H., Indianapolis, Ind.,
Harley, J. M., Tishomingo, Ind. Ter.,	Soldan, Louis, St. Louis, Mo.

PHILADELPHIA, 1879.

Calkins, Norman A., New York, N. Y. M'Millan, Reuben, Youngstown, O.,
 Foster, Miss Rachel Gordon, No. Paxson, Joseph A., Philadelphia, Pa.,
 1909 N. 12th St., Philadelphia, Pa., *Sheldon, Wm. E.*, Boston, Mass.,
 Kraus John, New York, N. Y., Shippen, Edward, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Kraus-Boelte, Mrs. Maria, New York,
 N. Y.,

The names printed in Italics are of persons who had previously become life-members when the fee was \$10, but who chose to pay \$10 more and become life-members under the new fee of \$20.

Several persons who gave their names for life-memberships at Baltimore and Louisville have failed to pay the membership fee. Notice is now given that if the fees be not received before the publication of the next proceedings the names will be dropped in accordance with the unanimous sentiment of the Board of Directors. (See proceedings of the Board of Directors.)

* Deceased.

NAMES ENROLLED AT PHILADELPHIA.

ARRANGED BY STATES.

In order to get the Pennsylvania list on one page it is placed last, out of its alphabetic order.

CONNECTICUT.

Henry Barnard, Hartford,	C. W. Knudsen, South Norwalk,
D. N. Camp, New Britain,	Mrs. M. A. Stone, New Milford.

DELAWARE.

Miss Sarah M. Fell, Wilmington,	Wm. H. Purnell, Newark,
Miss Ann Fothergill, Wilmington,	Miss Emma Worrell, Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Greensville Dowell, Washington,	Z. Richards, Washington,
John Eaton, Washington,	J. Ormond Wilson, Washington.
Abraham Hart, Washington,	

FLORIDA.

W. P. Haisley, Tallahassee,	J. H. Roper, Gainesville.
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ILLINOIS.

Miss Jane M. Bancroft, Evanston,	Edmund J. James, Normal,
Edwin C. Hewitt, Normal,	F. T. Oldt, Lanark.
Miss Sarah A. Hunter, Rockford,	

INDIANA.

W. A. Bell, Indianapolis,	L. S. Thompson, Lafayette,
Geo. P. Brown, Terre Haute,	E. E. White, Lafayette,
John S. Irwin, Fort Wayne,	T. A. Wylie, Bloomington.
Lemuel Moss, Bloomington,	

IOWA.

Jas. C. Gilchrist, Cedar Falls,	J. L. Pickard, Iowa City,
Miss Maude Gilchrist, Cedar Falls,	Miss Eliz. A. Sorin, Clarinda.

MARYLAND.

Jas. M. Garnett, Annapolis,	M. A. Newell, Baltimore.
C. K. Nelson, Annapolis,	

MASSACHUSETTS.

Chas. H. Ames, Boston,	John D. Philbrick, Danvers.
Henry F. Harrington, New Bedford,	W. E. Sheldon, Boston.
Geo. F. Phelps, Boston,	

MICHIGAN.

Lewis McLouth, Ypsilanti.

MINNESOTA.

Wm. F. Phelps, Winona.

MISSOURI.

Miss Grace C. Bibb, State University, Wm. T. Harris, St. Louis.

NEW JERSEY.

Wm. N. Barringer, Newark,	Miss Nancy R. Field, East Orange,
Rodolphus Bingham, Camden,	Chas. K. Middleton, Camden,
H. K. Bugbee, Williamstown,	Edward A. Spring, Perth Amboy,
Miss Elizabeth Burton, Plainfield,	Mrs. H. K. Traske, Bridgeton,
Miss E. C. Collins, Port Republic,	Marcus Willson, Vineland,
Miss Emma Culin, Hartford,	Kate Weekes, Trenton.
Miss D. J. Eldridge, Cape May C. H.,	

NEW YORK.

Mrs. G. Van Aiken, Elizabethtown,	John Kraus, New York.
F. N. Bardwell, Hempstead,	Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelte, New York,
N. A. Calkins, New York,	Geo. H. Shattuck, New York,
L. B. Corey, New York,	Edward Smith, Syracuse,
Edward Danforth, Elmira,	J. Dorman Steele, Elmira.
Miss Nancy Elliott, New York,	

OHIO.

Frank Aborn, Cleveland,	Reuben McMillan, Youngstown,
E. M. Avery, Cleveland,	Miss Ruth Morris, Cleveland,
E. W. Coy, Cincinnati,	A. J. Rickoff, Cleveland,
John Hancock, Dayton,	Charlotte A. Stewart, Loudonville.
W. D. Henkle, Salem,	Eli T. Tappan, Gambier.

RHODE ISLAND.

A. M. Gammell, Philadelphia. (?)

TENNESSEE.

Miss Helen Hoadley, Knoxville.

TEXAS.

Alexander Hogg, College Station.

VERMONT.

A. B. Corliss, East Corinth.

VIRGINIA.

J. H. Peay, Richmond.

WEST VIRGINIA.

W. Colegrove, Flemington,	A. L. Wade, Morgantown,
T. Marcellus Marshall, Glenville.	

WISCONSIN.

Jno. P. Bird, La Crosse.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Wm. H. Allen, Philadelphia,
 Miss Julia C. Arner, Philadelphia,
 S. A. Baer, Berks County,
 Theodore M. Barber, Pittsburgh,
 G. W. Bartch, Shenandoah,
 D. W. Bartine, Philadelphia,
 A. H. Berlin, Pittston,
 E. Benj. Bierman, Annville,
 Miss M. F. Boice, Kennett Square,
 Edward Brooks, Millersville,
 Wm. M. Boal, Northumberland,
 M. E. Buckwalter, Mt. Joy,
 R. K. Buehrle, Reading,
 Miss Ruth R. Burritt, Philadelphia,
 Miss Delia B. Burt, Philadelphia,
 Chas. E. Cadwalader, Philadelphia,
 R. H. Carothers, Shippensburg,
 Henry C. Clinton, Philadelphia,
 James M. Coughlin, Kingston,
 Miss Lucy Cope, Toughkenamon,
 Watson Cornell, Philadelphia,
 S. M. Cornman, Philadelphia,
 Philip Cressman, Philadelphia,
 J. W. Danenhower, Minersville,
 David B. Detweiler, Ft. Washington,
 George Eastburn, Philadelphia,
 A. D. Eisenhower, Norristown,
 Miss Laura Ensign, Cedar Falls,
 Miss Hannah Epright, Leopard,
 George W. Fetter, Philadelphia,
 Wm. Fewsmith, Philadelphia,
 A. P. Flint, Philadelphia,
 L. O. Foose, Harrisburg,
 Benjamin Franklin, New Brighton,
 O. E. French, Montrose,
 Miss Mary F. Garner, Philadelphia,
 Miss M. T. Gawthrop, Philadelphia,
 Miss Sallie H. Gilbert, Buckingham,
 J. K. Gotwals, Philadelphia,
 Simon Gratz, Philadelphia,
 D. W. Gross, Millersville,
 John R. Groves, Coudersport,
 S. S. Haldeman, Chickies,
 Miss Annie H. Hall, Philadelphia,
 Jacob W. Harvey, Unionville,
 Geo. P. Hays, Washington,
 Miss Annie Heacock, Jenkintown,
 Henry Houck, Harrisburg,
 W. S. Hulslander, Mansfield,
 Miss D. E. Huntsman, West Chester,
 S. D. Ingram, Harrisburg,
 E. T. Jeffers, New Wilmington,
 B. C. Jillson, Pittsburg,
 J. O. Knauss, Allentown,
 Edward Lewis, Philadelphia,
 William A. Lindsey, Harrisburg,
 Miss S. Launia Loder, Philadelphia,
 E. Oram Lyte, Millersville,
 J. P. McCaskey, Lancaster,
 Miss Mime McCommon, Oxford,
 John J. Macfarlane, Philadelphia,
 Edward MacHard, Philadelphia,
 F. P. Manhart, Bloomsburg,
 F. A. March, Easton,
 George L. Maris, West Chester,
 Miss Lizzie Marshall, Philadelphia,
 Miss Patience Michener, West Grove,
 Miss Mary C. Milligan, Philadelphia,
 I. V. Montgomery, Millersville,
 Miss Annie L. Morgan, Harrisburg,
 Miss M. L. Morrison, Philadelphia,
 Wm. Noetling, Bloomsburg,
 Miss Julia A. Orum, Germantown,
 Andrew J. Palm, Mercer,
 Lelia E. Patridge, W. Philadelphia,
 B. H. Patterson, Oil City,
 Douglass Patterson, Mount Joy,
 Joseph A. Paxson, Philadelphia,
 Miss Alice A. Pearson, Darby,
 E. L. Pearson, Philadelphia,
 Mrs. E. L. Pearson, Philadelphia,
 Moses Peirce, Plymouth Meeting,
 Geo. W. Phillips, Pleasant Mountain,
 B. S. Potter, Shippensburg,
 Joseph Roney, Scranton,
 Miss Maria L. Sanford, Philadelphia,
 W. P. Scharf, Selin's Grove,
 J. Warren Schlichter, Conshohocken,
 Miss C. H. Schrader, Philadelphia,
 W. T. Seal, Philadelphia,
 D. M. Sensenig, West Chester,
 B. F. Shaub, Lancaster,
 W. H. Shelly, York,
 Edward Shippen, Philadelphia,
 Miss Annie Shoemaker, Jenkintown,
 J. W. Shoemaker, Philadelphia,
 Chas. A. Singer, Philadelphia,
 Edgar A. Singer, Philadelphia,
 H. H. Spayd, Minersville,
 George H. Stout, Philadelphia,
 A. P. Supplee, Hazelton,
 J. R. Sypher, Philadelphia,
 Franklin Taylor, Philadelphia,
 Miss Alice W. Turner, Philadelphia,
 Robert Turner, Millersville,
 D. J. Waller, Jr., Bloomsburg,
 Jacob C. White, Jr., Philadelphia,
 H. B. Whittington, Philadelphia,
 J. P. Wickersham, Harrisburg,
 Mrs. J. P. Wickersham, Lancaster,
 M. B. Wicks, Philadelphia,
 Albert B. Williams, Philadelphia,
 Silas Wright, McAllistersville.

NAMES ENROLLED AT PHILADELPHIA, ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

Aborn, Frank, Ohio.,
Allen, Wm. H., Pa.,
Ames, Chas. H., Mass.,

Baer, S. A., Pa.,
Bancroft, Miss Jane M., Ill.,
Barber, Theodore M., Pa.,
Bardwell, F. N., N. Y.,
Barnard, Henry, Conn.,
Barringer, Wm. N., N. J.,
Bartch, G. W., Pa.,
Bartine, D. W., Pa.,
Bell, W. A., Ind.,
Berlin, A. H., Pa.,
Bibb, Miss Grace C., Mo.,
Bierman, E. Benj., Pa.,

Cadwalader, Chas. E., Pa.,
Calkins, N. A., N. Y.,
Camp, D. N., Conn.,
Carothers, R. H., Pa.,
Clinton, Henry C., Pa.,
Colegrove, W., W. Va.,
Collins, Miss Emma C., N. J.,
Cope, Miss Lucy, Pa.,

Danenhower, Joseph W., Pa.,
Danforth, Edward, N. Y.,

Eastburn, George, Pa.,
Eaton, John, D. C.,
Eisenhower, A. D., Pa.,
Eldridge, Miss Debbie J., N. J.,

Fell, Miss Sarah M., Del.,
Fetter, Geo. W., Pa.,
Fewsmith, Wm., Pa.,
Field, Miss Nancy R., N. J.,
Flint, A. P., Pa.,

Gammell, A. M., R. I.,
Garner, Miss Mary F., Pa.,
Garnett, Jas. M., Md.,
Gawthrop, Miss Mary T., Pa.,
Gilbert, Miss Sallie H., Pa.,
Gilchrist, Jas. C., Iowa.,

A.

Arner, Miss Julia C., Pa.,
Avery, E. M., Ohio.

B.

Bingham, Rodolphus, N. J.,
Bird, Jno. P., Wis.,
Boal, William M., Pa.,
Boice, Miss M. Frances, Pa.,
Brooks, Edward, Pa.,
Brown, Geo. P., Ind.,
Buckwalter, M. E., Pa.,
Buehrle, R. K., Pa.
Bugbee, H. K., N. J.,
Burritt, Miss Ruth R., Pa.
Burt, Miss Delia B., Pa.
Burton, Miss Elizabeth, N. J.

C.

Corey, L. B., N. Y.,
Corliss, A. B., Vt.,
Cornell, Watson, Pa.,
Cornman, S. M., Pa.,
Coughlin, Jas. M., Pa.,
Coy, E. W., Ohio.,
Cressman, Philip, Pa.,
Culin, Miss Emma, N. J.

D.

Detweiler, David B., Pa.,
Dowell, Greenville, D. C.

E.

Elliott, Miss Nancy, N. Y.,
Ensign, Miss Laura, Pa.,
Epwright, Miss Hannah, Pa.

F.

Foose, L. O., Pa.,
Fothergill, Miss Ann, Del.,
Franklin, Benj., Pa.,
French, O. E., Pa.

G.

Gilchrist, Miss Maude, Iowa.
Gotwals, J. K., Pa.,
Gratz, Simon, Pa.,
Gross, D. W., Pa.,
Groves, Jno. R., Pa.

Haisley, W. P., Fla.,
Haldeman, S. S., Pa.,
Hall, Miss Annie H., Pa.
Hancock, John, Ohio,
Harrington, Henry F., Mass.,
Harris, William T., Mo.,
Harvey, Jacob W., Pa.,
Hays, Geo. P., Pa.,
Heacock, Miss Annie, Pa.,

Ingram, S. D., Pa.,

James, Edmund J., Ill.,
Jeffers, E. T., Pa.,

Knauss, J. O., Pa.,
Knudsen, C. W., Conn.,

Lewis, Edward, Pa.,
Lindsey, William A., Pa.,

McCaskey, J. P., Pa.,
Macfarlane, Jno. J., Pa.,
MacHarg, Edward, Pa.,
McCommon, Miss Mime, Pa.,
McLouth, Lewis, Mich.,
McMillan, Reuben, Ohio,
Manhart, F. P., Pa.,
March, F. A., Pa.,
Maris, Geo. L., Pa.,
Marshall, Miss Lizzie, Pa.,

Nelson, C. K., Md.,
Newell, M. A., Md.,

Orum, Miss Julia A., Pa.,

Palm, Andrew J., Pa.,
Patridge, Miss Lelia E., Pa.,
Patterson, B. H., Pa.,
Patterson, Douglass, Pa.,
Paxson, Joseph A., Pa.,
Pearson, Miss Alice A., Pa.,
Pearson, E. L., Pa.,
Pearson, Mrs. E. L., Pa.,
Peay, J. H., Va.,

H.

Henkle, W. D., Ohio.,
Hewitt, Edwin C., Ill.,
Hoadley, Miss Helen, Tenn.,
Hogg, Alexander, Texas,
Houck, Henry, Pa.,
Hulslander, W. S., Pa.,
Hunter, Miss Sarah A., Ill.,
Huntsman, Miss D. Emma, Pa.,
Hart, Abraham, D. C.

I.

Irwin, John S., Ind.,

J.

Jillson, B. C., Pa.

K.

Kraus, John, N. Y.,
Kraus-Boelte, Mrs. Maria, N. Y.

L.

Lodor, Miss S. Jaunia, Pa.,
Lyte, E. Oram., Pa.

M.

Marshall, T. Marcellus, W. Va.,
Michener, Miss Patience, Pa.,
Middleton, Chas. K., N. J.,
Milligan, Miss Mary C., Pa.,
Montgomery, I. V., Pa.,
Morgan, Miss Annie L., Pa.,
Morris, Miss Ruth, Ohio,
Morrison, Miss M. Louisa, Pa.,
Moss, Lemuel, Ind.

N.

Noetling, William, Pa.

O.

Oldt, F. T., Ill.

P.

Peirce, Moses, Pa.,
Phelps, Geo. F., Mass.,
Phelps, Wm. F., Minn.,
Philbrick, Jno. D., Mass.,
Phillips, Geo. W., Pa.,
Pickard, J. L., Iowa.,
Potter, B. S., Pa.,
Purnell, Wm. H., Del.

Richards, Z., D. C.,
Rickoff, A. J., Ohio.,

Sanford, Miss Maria L., Pa.,
Scharf, Wm. P., Pa.,
Schlichter, J., Warren, Pa.,
Schrader, Miss Caroline H., Pa.,
Seal, W. T., Pa.,
Sensenig, D. M., Pa.,
Shattuck, Geo. H., N. Y.,
Shaub, B. F., Pa.,
Sheldon, W. E., Mass.,
Shelley, W. H., Pa.,
Shippen, Edward, Pa.,
Shoemaker, Miss Annie, Pa.,
Shoemaker, J. W., Pa.,

Tappan, Eli T., Ohio,
Taylor, Franklin, Pa.,
Thompson, L. S., Ind.,

Van Aiken, Mrs. Georgiana, N. Y.

Wade, A. L., W. Va.,
Waller, D. J., Jr., Pa.,
Weekes, Kate, N. J.,
White, E. E., Ind.,
White, Jacob C., Jr., Pa.,
Whittington, H. B., Pa.,
Wickersham, J. P., Pa.,
Wickersham, Mrs. J. P., Pa.,

R.

Roney, Joseph, Pa.,
Roper, J. H., Fla.

S.

Singer, Chas. A., Pa.,
Singer, Edgar A., Pa.,
Smith, Edward, N. J.,
Sorin, Miss Elizabeth A., Iowa,
Spayd, H. H., Pa.,
Spring, Edward A., N. J.,
Steele, J. Dorman, N. Y.,
Stewart, Miss Charlotte A., Ohio,
Stone, Mrs. M. A., Conn.,
Stout, Geo. H., Pa.,
Supplee, A. P., Pa.,
Sypher, J. R., Pa.

T.

Traske, Mrs. H. K., N. J.,
Turner, Miss Alice W., Pa.,
Turner, Robert, Pa.

V.

W.

Wicks, M. B., Pa.,
Williams, Albert B., Pa.,
Willson, Marcias, N. J.,
Wilson, J. Ormond, D. C.,
Worrell, Miss Emma, Del.,
Wright, Silas, Pa.,
Wylie, T. A., Ind.

SUPPLEMENTARY LIST OF MEMBERS FOR 1879.

After the close of the meeting of the Association in Philadelphia, the Secretary, in view of the fact that the receipts for membership had not been so large as was expected, not being sufficient to meet even the deficiency in the publication of the Louisville proceedings, thus leaving nothing for printing of the Philadelphia proceedings, appealed to prominent educators and teachers to enrol themselves in the list of members for 1879.

The appeal was made by means of 400 postal cards and by editorial notices in the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, the *New-England Journal of Education*, and the *Educational Weekly*. It is hoped that all those who responded to the call will be amply rewarded by the reading of this volume. The following is the result of the appeal. It should, however, be stated that the name of the Hon. W. H. H. Beadle was sent before the meeting in Philadelphia.

ARRANGED BY STATES.

CALIFORNIA.

Ezra S. Carr, Pasadena,

John Swett, 1419 Taylor Street, San Francisco.

CONNECTICUT.

Geo. R. Burton, 555 Howard Ave., B. G. Northrop, Clinton.
New Haven,

DAKOTA.

W. H. H. Beadle, Yankton.

ILLINOIS.

James P. Slade, Springfield.

INDIANA.

W. S. Almond, Vernon,
J. A. Beattie, Bedford,
S. E. Miller, Michigan City,

H. S. Tarbell, Indianapolis,
Wm. H. Wiley, Terre Haute.

IOWA.

H. L. Grant, Waverly,
H. W. Myers, Creston,

C. P. Rogers, Marshalltown.

KANSAS.

R. B. Welsh, Emporia.

KENTUCKY.

Samuel P. Lucy, Midway,
A. W. Mell, Glasgow,

Wm. S. Wood, Covington.

LOUISIANA.

Robert M. Lusher, Box 2028, New Orleans.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Thos. W. Bicknell, Boston, A. P. Stone, Springfield.
A. P. Marble, Worcester,

MICHIGAN.

Wm. H. Payne, Ann Arbor.

MINNESOTA.

Chas. Y. Lacy, Minneapolis.

MISSOURI.

E. R. Booth, Kirkwood.

MONTANA.

W. Egbert Smith, Butte City.

NEW MEXICO.

W. G. Ritch, Santa Fe.

NEW YORK.

Neil Gilmour, Albany.

OHIO.

Miss Eva J. Brand, Bellaire,	J. B. Irvin, Dayton,
L. D. Brown, Hamilton,	E. A. Jones, Massillon,
J. J. Burns, Columbus,	John C. Kinney, Norwalk,
M. S. Campbell, Youngstown,	J. H. Lehman, Canton,
Mrs. Sadie J. Cannon, Bellaire,	H. N. Mertz, Steubenville,
I. M. Clemens, Madison,	John Ogden, Worthington,
E. H. Cook, Columbus,	T. A. Pollok, Miamisburgh,
S. F. De Ford, Ottawa,	A. J. Rickoff,* Cleveland,
W. H. Dressler, Alliance,	Chas. R. Shreve, Martin's Ferry,
Bettie Dutton, 94 State St., Cleveland,	A. B. Stutzman, Kent,
Alston Ellis, Columbus,	F. H. Umholtz, Leetonia,
J. A. Gardner, Fredericksburgh,	Hamilton Wallace, Canal Dover.

PENNSYLVANIA.

J. A. Cooper, Edinboro, M. Gantz, New Castle.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Willard Richardson, Winsboro.

TENNESSEE.

Edward S. Joynes, Knoxville.

WISCONSIN.

T. C. Richmond, Monticello.

* A life-member.

ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

A.

Almond, W. S., Ind.

B.

Beadle, W. H. H., Dakota,
Beattie, J. A., Ind.,
Bicknell, Thos. W., Mass.,
Booth, E. R., Mo.,

Brand, Miss Eva J., Ohio,
Brown, L. D., Ohio,
Burns, J. J., Ohio,
Burton, Geo. R., Conn.

C.

Campbell, M. S., Ohio,
Cannon, Mrs. Sadie J., Ohio,
Carr, Ezra S., Cal.,

Clemens, I. M., Ohio,
Cook, E. H., Ohio,
Cooper, J. A., Pa.

D.

De Ford, S. F., Ohio,
Dressler, W. H., Ohio,

Dutton, Bettie, Ohio.

E.

Ellis, Alston, Ohio.

G.

Gantz, M., Pa.,
Gardner, J. A., Ohio,

Gilmour, Neil, N. Y.,
Grant, H. L., Iowa.

I.

Irvin, J. B., Ohio.

J.

Jones, E. A., Ohio,

Joynes, Ed. S., Tenn.

K.

Kinney, John C., Ohio.

L.

Lacy, Chas. Y., Minn.,
Lehman, J. H., Ohio,

Lucy, Samuel P., Ky.,
Lusher, R. M., La.

M.

Marble, A. P., Mass.,
Mell, A. W., Ky.,
Mertz, H. N., Ohio,

Miller, S. E., Ind.,
Myers, H. W., Iowa.

N.

Northrop, B. G., Conn.

O.

Ogden, John, Ohio.

P.

Payne, Wm. H., Mich.,

Pollok, T. A., Ohio.

R.

Richardson, Willard, S. C.,
Richmond, T. C., Wis.,
Rickoff, A. J., Ohio,

Ritch, W. G., New Mexico,
Rogers, C. P., Iowa.

S.

Shreve, Chas. R., Ohio,
Slade, Jas. P., Ill.,
Smith, W. Egbert, Montana,

Stone, A. P., Mass.,
Stutzman, A. B., Ohio,
Swett, John, Cal.

T.

Tarbell, H. S., Ind.

U.

Umboltz, F. H., Ohio,

W.

Wallace, Hamilton, Ohio,
Welsh, R. B., Kansas,

Wiley, W. H., Ind.,
Wood, Wm. S., Ky.

NEW LIFE-DIRECTORSHIP.

The following letter although dated in September was not sent until Dec. 9, and was received Dec. 10, 1879, a few hours too late to allow printing on p. 217, the Philadelphia Teachers' Institute in the list of Life Directors.

PHILADELPHIA, September 13, 1879.

Mr. W: D. Henkle, Secretary National Educational Association.

DEAR SIR:—The local committee, composed of members of the Teachers' Institute, the Board of Education, the Permanent Exhibition Company, and teachers of private schools, having completed the pleasing duties imposed upon it in making preparations for the annual meeting of the National Educational Association in this city, and for the accommodation, the convenience, and the pleasure of all visiting members and friends of the Association, desires to make known through you, the general results of its efforts and to indicate the means by which it has been enabled to extend the courtesies of hospitality to the Association, and to aid substantially the cause in which it is engaged.

Through properly-directed efforts of sub-committees and the kindness of the Board of Education, convenient and commodious halls and rooms were secured for the general business sessions of the Association, free of cost. Through the influence of the Finance Committee and the liberality of the following publication and manufacturing houses, the rent of the Academy of Music for an evening lecture, and all necessary and incidental expenses were defrayed:—

J. H. Butler & Co.,.....	\$100 00
Cowperthwait & Co.,.....	100 00
Sower, Potts & Co.,.....	85 00
Eldredge & Bro.,.....	50 00
J. B. Lippincott & Co.,.....	50 00
Porter, Coates & Co.,.....	50 00
Harper Bros.,.....	50 00
Potter, Ainsworth & Co.,.....	50 00
Keystone Furniture Co.,.....	30 00
D. Appleton & Co.,.....	25 00
Ginn & Heath,.....	10 00
Davis, Bardeen & Co.,.....	10 00
Total,.....	<u>\$610 00</u>

After the payment of all debts incurred and the settlement of all claims arising, there remained an unexpended balance of eighty-five dollars. Desiring that the money contributed should be devoted according to the wishes of those by whom it was so cheerfully given, the committee adopted a resolution requesting the Teachers' Institute to accept the balance named, provided it would appropriate from its funds an amount sufficient to increase the sum to one hundred dollars, and that it would invest this total amount in a life-directorship in the National Educational Associa-

tion, and to be represented therein by a member duly qualified and elected annually.

The Board of Managers of the Institute subsequently appropriated the required balance, amended its By-Laws to provide for the annual election of a representative to the Association, and instructed its committee on Library to purchase for the use of its members, a full and complete set of the reports of the Association from the date of its organization in Philadelphia, 1857, to the present time.

I have the honor to be yours most respectfully,

EDGAR A. SINGER,
Chairman Joint Local Committee.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Proceedings for 1879.

OLD BOARD.

The Board met at 8 P. M. July 28, 1879, in one of the parlors of the Continental Hotel, Philadelphia, Pa. There were present JOHN HANCOCK, President; W. D. HENKLE, Secretary; J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer; J. P. WICKERSHAM, W. F. PHELPS, J. L. PICKARD, G. P. BROWN, T. M. MARSHALL, E. T. TAPPAN, ALEX. HOGG, and M. A. NEWELL.

The Secretary and Treasurer made their reports which were referred to an Auditing Committee consisting of E. T. TAPPAN, J. P. WICKERSHAM, and T. M. MARSHALL.

At the request of E. T. TAPPAN permission was granted to read in the Department of Higher Instruction, the paper of C. K. ADAMS, LL. D., he being unavoidably absent.

At the request of W. F. PHELPS the same permission was granted in reference to the paper of the Hon. J. W. DICKINSON, to be read in the General Association.

W. F. PHELPS introduced the subject of memberships, urging that every thing possible should be done to increase the membership list. At the request of the President (JOHN HANCOCK) Mr. EDGAR A. SINGER, of the Local Committee made a statement of what had been done by the various city institutions in favor of members.

EDWARD SHIPPEN, Esq., also of the Local Committee, made a statement as to the rooms that had been assigned for the meetings of the General Association and the various Departments.

A statement was made that several of the persons who had enrolled as life-members at Baltimore and Louisville had not yet paid their fees. The general expression was that such names should be dropped from the published list of life-members.

On motion of W. F. PHELPS, J. P. WICKERSHAM, M. A. NEWELL, and J. ORMOND WILSON, were appointed a committee to secure from Congress an Act of Incorporation of the Association.

Adjourned.

At a subsequent time the Board met but transacted no business except to hear the report of the Auditing Committee, the report being that the accounts of the Secretary and Treasurer were found to be correct.

NEW BOARD.

The New Board met on call of the President elect, J. ORMOND WILSON, at the Normal-School Building, at 8½ A. M., July 31, 1879.

In view of the fact that Prof. ALEX. HOGG's paper had been crowded out of its place in the Department of Industrial Education, the Board on motion recommended President HANCOCK to provide a place for it in the General Association.

The following communication was received from Dr. F. A. MARCH, President of the Spelling-Reform Association, which had met as a Department of this Association.

To THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Hon. W. D. Henkle, Secretary,

SIR:—At the last session of the Spelling-Reform Association it was resolved:

"That the National Educational Association be requested to use amended spelling in the printed volumes of its Transactions and other documents."

The President of the Spelling-Reform Association was requested to accompany this resolution with a statement of the different stages of amended spelling in use in other Associations.

1. The American Philological Association and the English Phil. Association print each paper with such reformed spelling as the writer chooses to use in accordance with the general rules of change recognized by the Associations.

2. The American Phil. Association recommends as the beginning of change the amended spelling of eleven words, as follows:—*Tho, Thru, gard, catalog, ar, giv, hav, liv, definit, infinit, wisht.*

3. The Spelling-Reform Association has selected three of these for a still simpler beginning: *giv, hav, liv.*

4. The Spelling-Reform Association urges the adoption of *five rules* which simplify the spelling of many words.

5. The alfabet of the Spelling-Reform Association and the Phil. Association may be used throughout. The State Teachers' Association of Missouri print their Proceedings in this way this year.

The use of amended spelling in some form in the Transactions of learned societies is one of the modes of introducing it which scholars look to with the greatest confidence. The American Institute of Instruction admitted it into the last volume of its Proceedings.

Will you be so kind as to communicate this to the National Educational Association in convention, or to its Executive Committee, as may be proper?

For the Spelling-Reform Association.

F. A. MARCH, President.

For want of time to consider this communication on motion of W: F. PHELPS, its consideration was deferred until the next meeting.

Adjourned to meet at Centennial Building at 4 P. M.

Board met at 1 P. M. at the Normal-School Building, fearing a meeting could not be secured at the Centennial Building.

W: F. PHELPS presented an invitation from the Chautauqua Assembly to hold the next meeting at Lake Chautauqua.

On motion of E. E. WHITE the invitation was accepted provided railway, hotel, and other arrangements can be made satisfactory to the Executive Committee.

On motion of JOHN HANCOCK, EDWARD DANFORTH, of Elmira, N. Y., was appointed a committee on transportation.

On motion of E. T. TAPPAN a preference was expressed for the second Tuesday in July as the time for the opening of the next meeting.

On motion of E. E. WHITE it was decided to continue the next meeting four days, morning and evening, and to give one afternoon to each Department for the purpose of making the exercises of that afternoon especially prominent.

So much time having been consumed in discussing the place of the next meeting and the manner of arranging for it to make it a success, the Board adjourned before reaching the consideration of Dr. MARCH's communication, and other points that the Secretary intended to present.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

1879.	Dr.
July 29. To Membership Fees, 1877.....	\$294 00
" " " Life Membership Fees, 1877.....	133 00
" " " Volumes of Proceedings sold,.....	361 35
" " " Amount received from other sources.....	78 00
	<hr/>
	866 35

CONTRA.

1879.	Cr.
July 29. By Cash paid W. D. HENKLE on account of Publication Committee, 1876.....	\$246 50
" " " Expressage,.....	4 36
" " " Miscellaneous expenses.....	2 00
" " " Cash paid W. D. HENKLE, for miscellaneous expenses and on account of Publication Com., 1877,	613 49
	<hr/>
	\$866.35

J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

STATEMENT

In Detail of Amounts Received by J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer of the National Educational Association.

1878.	Annual Membership Fees at Louisville.....	\$284 00
	Life Membership Fees at Louisville.....	30 00
	Donation, Louisville Teachers.....	60 00
Aug. 24,	B. B. Huntoon, Annual membership, 1877.....	2 00
Sept. 1,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1876, to L. G. Marshall.....	2 00

Treasurer's Report.

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Sept. 4,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1875, to S. T. Lowry.....	1 50
Sept. 4,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1872, '73, '74, '75, '76, each, Wm. J. C. Dulany & Co., Baltimore, Md.....	8 25
Sept. 7,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65, '66, '70, '71, '72, '73, each to T. M. Marshall, Glenville, W. Va.,	9 25
Sept. 13,	Mrs. Laura Adams, Annual Membership, 1877.....	2 00
Sept. 22,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1871, to S. R. Thompson,	1 50
Sept. 26,	6 Vols. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65, '66, 50c each, E. T. Tappan,.....	3 00
Sept. 27,	2 Vols. Proceedings, 1860, '66, S. R. Thompson,.....	1 00
Oct. 1,	2 Vols. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65' 66, 1 copy 1870, '71, '72, '73, 2 copies '74, '75, '76 to Robt. Curry, Esq., Peru, Neb.....	25 25
Oct. 9,	Life Membership Fee, James H. Smart,.....	20 00
Dec. 19,	E. R. Booth, Annual Membership, 1877,.....	2 00
Dec. 19,	6 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, S. H. White, Peoria, Ill..... 1879.	7 25
Jan. 18,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1858, '59, '60, '63, '65, '66, '70, '71, '72, '78, 74, '78, 76, to E. C. Hewitt, Normal, Illinois,	14 25
Feb. 13,	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1877, W. J. Corthell, Augusta, Me.,	2 00
Feb. 15,	2 Vols. Proceedings 1877, Board of Education D. C.....	4 00
Feb. 18,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1874, Rev. H. A. Thompson, West- erville, Ohio.....	1 50
May 13,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1877, Pres. N. Porter, Yale College,	2 00
June 14,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1877, W. H. & O. H. Morrison, Washington,.....	2 00
Aug. 11,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1876, Wm. J. Russell, Cornell Uni- versity, Ithaca, N. Y.....	2 00
Aug. 23,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1860, Chas. O. Thompson, Worces- ter, Mass.....	50
Oct. 23,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1875, '76, '77 each.....	5 50
Nov. 26,	1 Vol. Proceedings 1858, '59, '60, '65, '66, '72, '73, S. H. White, Peoria, Illinois.....	7 00
Apr. 1,	1 Vol. Proceedings, each 1872-'73, A. A. Waters, West Virginia University.....	3 25
Total,.....		503 00

*Statement in Detail of Payments made by J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer of the
National Educational Association.*

Amount paid W. D. Henkle, publication, 1876,.....		\$246 50—voucher No. 1.
Expressage.....	1 30—	“ “ 2.
Copying President Porter's Address.....	2 00—	“ “ 3.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	124 20—	“ “ 4
Paid Expressage,.....	3 06—	“ “ 5.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	50 00—	“ “ 6.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	57 00—	“ “ 7.
Paid to W. D. Henkle on acc't publication, 1877,	18 94—	“ “ 8.
Total.....		503 00— 503 00

VOLUMES OF PROCEEDINGS UNSOLD,

IN THE CUSTODY OF THE TREASURER.

Proceedings of 1858,	15	volumes.....	Price per volume,	\$.50
" " 1859,	17	"	" " "		.50
" " 1860,	4	"	" " "		.50
" " 1863,	21	"	" " "		.50
" " 1865,	120	"	" " "		.50
" " 1866,	125	"	" " "		.50
" " 1872,	37	"	" " "		1.75
" " 1873,	205	"	" " "		1.50
" " 1874,	420	"	" " "		1.50
" " 1875,	33	"	" " "		1.50
" " 1876,	420	"	" " "		2.00
" " 1877,	426	"	" " "		2.00

REPORT OF AUDITING COMMITTEE.

The undersigned have examined the foregoing account of the Treasurer of the National Educational Association, with the vouchers therefor, and find the same to be correct, and a balance of \$429.62 to be due W. D. Henkle on account of Publication Committee, 1877.

ELI T. TAPPAN,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL,
Auditing Committee.

July 29, 1879.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION IN ACCOUNT WITH
W: D. HENKLE, SECRETARY, ACTING AS CHAIRMAN OF
PUBLICATION COMMITTEE.

	<i>Dr.</i>
To printing 1024 copies of Louisville Proceedings.....	\$779.92
“ binding “ “ “ “ “	153.60
“ fly-leaf paper inserted by binder.....	6.00
	<hr/>
Total cost of printing and binding.....	\$939.52
To expressage on paper from Sandusky.....	\$.55
“ 4 large boxes for shipping sheets to binder.....	2.50
“ strap iron to secure boxes.....	.53
“ drayage to station at Salem, 1500 lbs.....	1.50
“ freight and drayage paid at Columbus, Ohio, by Siebert and Lilly.....	6.35
“ charge of binder for putting up 7 express packages.....	1.75
“ “ “ “ box and drayage, Dec. 22, 1877.....	.90
“ “ “ “ “ “ “ “ Feb. 19, 1879.....	1.40
	<hr/>
Total incidental expenses relating to proceedings.....	\$15.48
Total cost of printing, binding, and shipping volumes, etc.....	\$955.00

**Audited and approved July 28, 1879,
Philadelphia, Pa.**

**ELI T. TAPPAN,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL,**
Auditing Committee.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION IN ACCOUNT WITH
W: D. HENKLE, SECRETARY.

		<i>Dr.</i>
Sept. 22, 1877.	To expense on Henderson's draft.....	\$.15
Jan. 11, 1878.	" 250 letter-paper sheets.....	.87
" " "	" 250 envelopes, white.....	.75
" " "	" printing 250 letter sheets with officers' names, etc.....	3.00
" " "	" " envelopes.....	.75
" " "	" postage on above sent to officers.....	.66
Aug. 16, "	" cash paid W: F. PHELPS for postage on memorials.	3.00
" " "	" " " " " " " " printing 200 "	3.50
" " "	" " " " " " " " 50 postal cards.....	1.25
" " "	" cash paid W: F. PHELPS for printing 150 large memorials.....	4.50
Oct. 14, "	" expense of RUFFNER's order.....	.10
March 17, 1879.	To printing 250 letter heads with officers' names..	\$ 3.87
	" " 275 envelopes.....	2.25
	" " programs, 1st edition.....	5.00
July 7, 1879.	" " " 2d " (2500).....	7.00
" 23, "	" " " 3d " (5000).....	20.00
" 23, "	" " 100 postal cards railway service.....	1.75
" 23, "	" " 1500 2-color membership cards.....	12.00
" 7, & 23, "	" expressage on programs (1000) each time.....	1.00
	" 500 envelopes for programs.....	0.75
	" postage on programs, etc.....	8.65
	" letters written (71) postage on same.....	2.13
	" postal cards written.....	2.25
	" railway orders.....	1.25
	" box for programs.....	0.10
	" expressage on box of programs and tickets to Philadelphia.....	1.50
		88.11

Audited and approved July 28th, 1879,
Philadelphia, Pa.

ELI T. TAPPAN,
J. P. WICKERSHAM,
T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL,
Auditing Committee.

Calendar of Meetings.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857.—*PHILADELPHIA, PA.*

Organized.

1858.—*CINCINNATI, OHIO.*

Z. RICHARDS, *Pres.*, J. W. BULKLEY, *Sec.*, A. J. RICKOFF, *Treas.*

1859.—*WASHINGTON, D. C.*

A. J. RICKOFF, *Pres.*, J. W. BULKLEY, *Sec.*, C. S. PENNELL, *Treas.*

1860.—*BUFFALO, N. Y.*

J. W. BULKLEY, *Pres.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1861.—*No Session.*

1862.—*No Session.*

1863.—*CHICAGO, ILL.*

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, *Pres.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1864.—*OGDENSBURG, N. Y.*

W: H. WELLS, *Pres.*, DAVID N. CAMP, *Sec.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Treas.*

1865.—*HARRISBURG, PA.*

S. S. GREENE, *Pres.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Sec.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Treas.*

1866.—*INDIANAPOLIS, IND.*

J. P. WICKERSHAM, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, S. P. BATES, *Treas.*

1867.—*No Session.*

1868.—*NASHVILLE, TENN.*

J. M. GREGORY, *Pres.*, L. VAN BOKKELEN, *Sec.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Treas.*

1869.—*TRENTON, N. J.*

L. VAN BOKKELEN, *Pres.*, W: E. CROSBY, *Sec.*, A. L. BARBER, *Treas.*

1870.—*CLEVELAND, OHIO.*

D. B. HAGAR, *Pres.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Sec.*, W: E. CROSBY, *Treas.*

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—*ST. LOUIS, MO.*

J: L. PICKARD, *Pres.*, W: E. CROSBY, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1872.—*BOSTON, MASS.*

E. E. WHITE, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1873.—*ELMIRA, N. Y.*

B. G. NORTHROP, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1874.—*DETROIT, MICH.*

S. H. WHITE, *Pres.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1875.—*MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.*

W: T. HARRIS, *Pres.*, W: R. ABBOT, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1876.—*BALTIMORE, MD.*

W: F. PHELPS, *Pres.*, W: D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1877.—*LOUISVILLE, KY.*

M. A. NEWELL, *Pres.*, W: D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, J. ORMOND WILSON, *Treas.*

1878.—*No Session.*

1879.—*PHILADELPHIA, PA.*

JOHN HANCOCK, *Pres.*, W: D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, J. ORMOND WILSON, *Treas.*

OFFICERS FOR 1879-80.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

J. ORMOND WILSON, Washington, D. C., - President.
 JAS. H. SMART, Indianapolis Ind., - First Vice-President.
 W: D. HENKLE, Salem, Ohio, - - - Secretary.
 ELI T. TAPPAN, Gambier, Ohio, - - - Treasurer.
 [For Vice-Presidents, and Counsellors, see page 56.]

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

ELI T. TAPPAN, Gambier, Ohio, - - - President.
 LEMUEL MOSS, Bloomington, Ind., - Vice-President.
 E. B: BIERMAN, Annville, Pa., - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

J. C. GILCHRIST, Cedar Falls, Iowa, - President.
 EDWIN C. HEWETT, Normal, Ill., - Vice-President.
 G: W. FETTER, Philadelphia, Pa. - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

JAS. H. SMART, Indianapolis Ind., - - - President.
 MISS SUSAN E. BLOW, St. Louis Mo. - Vice-President.
 MISS LELIA E. PATRIDGE, Philadelphia, Pa., Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

E. E. WHITE, Lafayette, Ind., - - - President.
 ALEX. HOGG, College Station, Texas, - Vice-President.
 H: B. WHITTINGTON, 1320 Jackson St., Philadelphia, Pa., - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

M. A. NEWELL, Baltimore, Md., - - - President.
 N. A. CALKINS, New York, N. Y., - Vice-President.
 S. A. BAER, Berks Co., Pa., - - - Secretary.

COMMITTEE ON TRANSPORTATION.

EDWARD DANFORTH, Elmira, N. Y.

SPELING REFÖRM ASOSHIASHUN.

Furst Da'e Proçedings, Jüly 29, 1879.

Dhè Speling Reförm Asoshiashun met az a Depårtment ov the Nashunal Edücashunal Asoshiashun, in the Preçceptor's Rüm ov the Gurl'a Nörmal Scul Bilding, Philadelphia, at 3 o'cloc P. M.

Dhè President, Francis A. Mürch, LL. D., ov Lafayette Colej, Easton, Pa., cöld the Asoshiashun tu öder. In the absenç ov the Secreteri, J. W. Walk, M. D., ov Philadelphia, wöz chöen Secreteri *pro tem*. A paper wöz then red on Dhè Prezent Stat ov the Speling Reförm in America, bi the President ov the Asoshiashun. He sed:

Dhè müvment för the reförm ov English speling is a product ov the spirit ov the ag, a tru bürth ov tîm, az Bacon liks tu cöl his filosofi. Dhè grat cörents ov thöt and acshun set toarda reförm. We är för reforming everifhing that can help us in the discoveri ov truth and the imprüvment ov man'a estat.

Givn a spökn langwagj, the tæi comünicashun ov it bi riting and printing is a problem in labor-saving mashineri. But thär is sö much that is complex and supörflius in our prezent speling that hundredz ov milyuna ov dolara är wasted bi it in our printing ofices everi yër.

Our tæchera sè that tu ör thrè yëra ov the scul-lif ov everi child är wörs than wasted in trjing tu lörn tu spel.

Our statsmen sè that we hav 5,500,000 iliterats in the Ünited Stats, and that wun ov the möst pauerful cöæa ov our iliteraci is the badnes ov our speling.

Our scolara find thär studia ov langwagj embarast at everi törn bi our hwimeical and unmanagabl alfabet. Etimologècal and sjentific truth in regörd tu the histori and löa ov the English langwagj är berid under pjla ov rubish mauntin-hj.

Out ov öl thea cöæa ov reförm sprang our Speling Reförm Asoshiashun. It wöz örganjzd in our çentenial yër, 1876, at an Internashunal Convenshun för the Amendment ov English Orthog-raphi, held in Philadelphia.

Dhè anüal mëting in 1877 wöz held at Baltimöre, in conecshun with the mëting ov the American Filological Asoshiashun. This grat böd ov scolara had ölredi exprest its interest in the reförm, and apeinted a comiti tu repört upen it. Dhè Speling Reförm Asoshiashun adopted thär repört. It gav in substanc the alfabet ov the fütür and several sugeschuna about the best wa tu rëch it.

Dhè anüal mëting in 1878 wöz held in the White Mountaina, in conecshun with the American Institüte ov Instruçshun, hwich gav a favorabl hëring tu the advocats ov the reförm.

And nau we finish our thörd yër bi this mëting az a Depårtment ov the Nashunal Edücashunal Asoshiashun. Hwot hav we dun? Hau du we find ourselva?

The first thing we undertuk tu dū wəz tu exçit and cōncētrat disatisfacshun with the old speling. In this thār haz bin mōr dun than wē hōpt. Wē hav the cōncūring voīcēz ov the grāt ōfhoritiz in filologi, in edūcāshun and statsmanship, clēr and strōng, bōth in America and Englland.

Prof. Max Müller, ov the Univērsity ov Oxford, the hed ov əl thingz amung the filologists ov Englland, sez: The cweschun, then, that wil hav tu bē anserd sūner or later iz this: "Can this unsistematic sistem ov speling Engllish bē aloud tu gō on forever?" Iz everi Engllish child, az compard with uthēr children, tu bē mulct in tu or thrē yēz ov hie life in ōrder tu lōrn it? Ar the lōer clāsez tu gō thrū scūl without lōrning tu rēd and rīt thār on langwag inteli-gentli? And iz the cuntri tu pā milyunz everi yēr fōr this uter falūr ov nashunal edūcāshun? I dū net belēv or thīnk that such a stat ov thingz wil bē aloud tu gō on forever, particūlarli az a remedi iz at hand. I consider that the sūner it iz takn in hand the beter. Thār iz a mōtiv pauer behind thez fonetic refōrmēz which Arch-bishop Trench haz hārdli takn intu acount. I mēn the mizeri endūrd bī milyunz ov children at scūlz, hū mīt lōrn in wun yēr, and with rēal advantag tu themselve, hwet tha nau recwīr fōr or fiv yēz tu lōrn, and seldum succēd in lōrning, after əl.

Prof. Whitney sez: Wē ar, then, clērli ov opinyun that a fonetic orthograft iz ov itself in əl respects deejrabl, and that thār iz nō gud rēen agenst introduçing it, sav the incōnvēnyenç ov sō grāt a chang. Everi thēoretical and practical considerashun maks in its favor.

And hwen Prof. Whitney and Prof. Max Müller agrē, hū shall sa them na?

Dr. Morris, lectūrēr on Engllish in King's Coleg, London, hū rankz amung the fūrst Engllish scolarz, sez: The nūmerus incōnsistēciēz in our ūs ov the letēz ov the alfabet mak our orthograft a līng spirit tu deçēv thōz hū ūz it; and wē sēm wiling tu līs tu its voīç. Wun object ov edūcāshun iz tu tran the obzōrving pauer ov a child, and tu tēch it tu rēen from the facts that cum within the rang ov its expērienç. Our alfabet, with əl its glōrius unçōrtintiz, ōnli tendz tu mislēd and deçēv the obzōrving pauer. From the ritn simbol the child ot tu bē abl tu dedūç the proper soundz; but hwen wun simbol reprēzents thrē or fōr soundz, and the sam sound iz reprēzented bī fōm fiv tu twelv, or ēvn mōr, diferent simbole, hau iz a child tu get eni help tōard the sound from obzōrving the simbol? It iz sed that ōnli fifti wōrdz in Engllish ar ritn az the ar pronaunçt (or pronaunçt in acōrdanç with the namē ov thār letēz), sō that the i iz the ōrgan ūzēd (az in Chīnezē) in lōrning tu rēd.

Bishop Thirlwall, the ilustrius ōfhor ov the "Histori ov Grēecē," sez: I luk upon the establisht sistem ov speling (if an accīdental custum ma bē sō cōld) az a mas ov anomaliz, the grōfh ov ignorānç and chang, ēcwali repugnant tu gud tast and cōmun sens. But I am awār that the public cling tu thez anomaliz with a tenaçiti propōrshunal tu thār absurditi, and ar jclus ov əl encroçhment on ground consecrated bī prescripshun tu the frē pla ov blīnd capric.

Lōrd Lytton sez: A mōr līng, raundabout, puzl-beded delūzhun than that bī hwich wē cōnfūz the clēr instīnçts ov trūth in our

acursed sistem ov speling woe never concocted bi the father ov folshud. Hau can a sistem ov edücashun flourish that begins bi so monstros a folshud, hwich the sens ov hëring sufizea tu contradict?

Prof. Hadley sez: It canot bë denjd that the Engglish langwag is shocingli speld.

Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull sez: The popölar mind sème awak az never beför tu apreshiashun ov the difficultie, ecçentricitie, and absurditie ov the prezent standard-Engglish cacografi.

För statsmen, thär är Charles Sumner, John Stuart Mill, W. E. Gladstone, and the lik.

Sumner sez: The Engglish langwag has an imens fütür. But thär must bë härmoni betwën the ritn and the spokn wörd. In helping this reförm yu är a benefactor. It is an imprövment ov practical valü and much neded.

John Stuart Mill sez: Thär is nö dout that a simplificalshun ov Engglish orthografi wud facilitat considerabli the task ov löarning tu red. A langwag hwich, lik the Spanish ov the prezent tîm, has redüct its speling tu a pürfectli üniförm sistem has a grat advantag over uthera.

W. E. Gladstone sez: Thär is much that mjt bë dun with advantag in the reförm ov speling az tu the Engglish langwag; but the man thing is that hwetever ma bë propöed shud bë propöed with the wat ov grat öfheriti tu bac it. It is not in mj pauer tu ofer tu giv eni tîm, under prezent çircumstances, tu the undertaking hwich I recomend and in hwich I shud gladli hav found mijself abl tu join.

Sir C. E. Trevelyan, K. C. B., sez: The Engglish sistem ov speling (I protest agenst its bëing cöld orthografi) is a labirinth, a caos, an absurditi, a disgrac tu aur aj and nashun.

Fröm aur educators wë önli select Hon. Wm. T. Harris, LL. D. He sez: The irregülaritie ov Engglish speling är, az is wel-nön, the cöe ov a wjd depärtür ön the pärt ov aur elementeri edücashun fröm that ov utha cuntria hwär Engglish is net spokn. In Germany and Italy the child can cörectli spel eni wörd he hërs, ör pronaunc eni wörd he sës, after he becoma familiar with the pauers ov the leterz ov his alfabet. Henc, the föriner spendz a veri smöl pörshun ov tîm in löarning his ön langwag, hwil if he wud lörn tu spel aur Engglish langwag cörectli he must giv yërs ov studi tu it. And, hwot is wörs ov öl, this studi is önli an exercize ov the memori, and net a cultivashun ov the rësn ör ov the pauer tu fhigk. Thär är fü general principle ör sugestiv analogie tu lîtn the bördn. The American child must spend a lörj pörshun ov his scül-daz löarning wun bi wun, the pecülyar combinashun ov the ritn wörds ov his langwag.

Dr. Temple, Bishop ov Exeter, förmerli hed master ov Rugby Scul, sez: I tak grat interest in the speling reförm that is propöed. But wë can spök ov the filologists and educators in mosca.

In Enggland.—In 1876 the Nashunal Ünion ov Elementeri Tëchera, representing sum 10,000 tëchera in Enggland and Wales, past ölmöst ünanimusli, a resölüşun in favor ov a roial cemishun tu incwîr intu the subject ov Engglish speling, with a vü ov reförm-ing and simplifjing it. The scül börd för London tuk up the mater,

and ishüd a çürçular asking others tu ünît in an adres tu the Edüca-shun Depårtment in favor ev it. The Liverpool and Bradford Borda had acted beför, and mör than a hundred uther Borda retürnd favorabl repliä. On Tuesday, May 29, 1877, a cöferenç wæs held in London, at hwich the Rev. A. H. Sayçe, profesor ev fileloji, Oxford, presided, and in hwich the president ev the Filolögical Soçieti, H. Swëet, Esq., and Viç President J. A. H. Murray, LL.D., and ex-president, tuk pärt, as wel as nümerus digniteria ev Chürch and Stat, lëding scül mastera, and eminent reförmera, inclüding Mr. I. Pitman and Mr. Ellis. Tha spent a da and evning in harmönus discushun and in lisning tu short adreseä, and adepted vigorus reasölüşuna, hwich tha apointed a comiti tu present tu the Depårtment ev Edüca-shun. The Cönvenshun wæs a grat succës, and cöld förth seriüs ärticle in The London Tímeä, fëlod ev cörs, hwen net preçeded, bi ärticle in the hol periödical pres ev Great Britain. The depütashuna wated on the Lord-president ev the cauncil Janü-ary 18, 1878. Adreseä wör mad bi Mr. Gladstone, Dr. R. Morris, Dr. Angus, Mr. Raffbone, M. P., Mr. Richardä, M. P., and Mr. A. J. Ellis, F. R. S. The Lord-president, the Düke ev Richmond and Gordon, in hie repliä, spök veri emfaticali ev the impörtanç ev the subject. He sed: It is ev such vast impörtanç and sō lārg extent that it wud not bē delt with in eni satisfactori wä uther than bi the Crown's bëing advjæd tu ishü ä comishun tu incwjr intu the mater.

The American Filolögical Asoshia-shun is the lārgest and mōst influēnschal bōdi ev filelogists in America. Among its members ärr representativ ev mör than wun hundred edüca-shunal institü-shuna, inclüding 12 theolögical semineria, 30 ünivërsitia and ölmōst everi cōleg ev eni standing in the Ünited States. The adreseä ev its presidents in favor ev this reförm, and the repört ev its comiti on the basis on hwich the reförm müvment hæz bin örganizd, hav bin reçevd without öpozi-shun. Last yër sum ev its lëding members stärted a memoriäl tu Cöngres, praing för the apointment ev a Comishun on Speling Reförm:

MEMORIÄL.

Tu the Honorabl the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, in Cöngres assembled: This Memorial of the undersignd, members of the American Filolögical Asöciation, and others, respectfully represents that it is cürently stated by leading educators that the irreg-ular speling of the English language causes a los of two years of the school time of each child, and is a main cause of the alarming illiteracy of our peopl; that it invöls an expens of hun-dreds of millions of dolars anually for teachers and for writing and printing superfluous leters, and that it is an obstacl in many other ways tu the progres of education among those speaking the English language, and tu the spred of the language among other nations.

It further represents that leading educators, among whom ar many teachers of much prac-tical experiēç, and asöciations of learned scholars declare it posibl tu reform our speling and hav proposed schemes of reform.

The prayer of your memorialists, therefore, is that your honorabl body may see fit tu apoint a Comision tu examin and report how far such a reform is desirabl, and what amendments in orthograpy, if any, may be wisely introduct into the public documents and the schools of the District of Columbia, and accepted in examinations for the Civil Servic, and whether it is expedient tu move the Government of Great Britain tu unite in constituting a joint Comiti tu consider such amendments.

And your memorialists, as in duty bound, wil ever pray, etc.

It wæs thöt that such a memoriäl wæs a gud mēnæ ev bringing out and cöncëtrating opinyun. Thär is härdli eni fōrst step mör tæi tu tak than tu sijn it. It wæs heded bi the members ev the Comiti on Speling Reförm, mōst ev them having bin presidents ev the Asoshia-shun.

The folowing ar the names ov the Comiti on Speling Reform: Francis A. March, Chairman, Lafayette College; William D. Whitney, Yale College; J. Hammond Trumbull, Yale College; Francis J. Child, Harvard College; S. S. Haldeman, University ov Pennsylvania. The folowing ar ex-Presidents ov the American Filological Association: Howard Crosby, President ov the University ov New York; W. W. Goodwin, Harvard College; A. Harkness, Brown University. It is also signd by filologists and profosors in the folowing universitis and colleges: Bowdoin College, Maine; Dartmouth College, N. H.; Amherst College, Mass.; Andover Theological Seminary, Mass.; Harvard College, Mass.; Phillips Academy, Mass.; Williams College, Mass.; Brown University, R. I.; University Grammar School, R. I.; Trinity College, Conn.; Yale College, Conn.; Hopkins Grammar School, Conn.; Cornell University, N. Y.; Rochester Theological Seminary, N. Y.; University ov New York, N. Y.; Princeton College, N. J.; Franklin and Marshall College, Pa.; Lafayette College, Pa.; University ov Pennsylvania, Pa.; Haverford College, Pa.; Washington and Jefferson, Pa.; John Hopkins University, Md.; St. John's College, Md.; State University, Ohio; Wesleyan University, Ohio; Wooster University, Ohio; Illinois Industrial University, Illinois; Northwestern University, Illinois; Shurtleff College, Illinois; Adrian College, Mich.; Michigan University, Mich.; Iowa College, Iowa; Cornell College, Iowa; Lawrence University, Wis.; Central College, Mo.; Baptist Theological Seminary, Ky.; Logan Female Institute, Ky.; Vanderbilt University, Tenn.; East Tennessee University, Tenn.; University ov Virginia, Va.; University ov Alabama, Ala.; University ov Mississippi, Miss.; State Agricultural College, Oregon; Agricultural and Mechanical College, Texas; The U. S. Naval Observatory, Washington, etc., etc. About fifti leding colleges.

Thēe colegea, it shud bē nōtiqt, ār thōe interested in thē Filological Asoshiashun. Thē memōrial haa nōt bin sent aut tu colegea in general. In meni colegea thē profosorē interested thēmselvē tu obtan uthr signatūrē, and thē namē ov thē mōst activ and efishent presidents ov colegea—lik Dr. Crosby, ov New York, Chamberlin, ov Bowdoin, Chadbourne, ov Williams—apēr on thē rōl.

Thē Univērsity ov Mississippi apointed a comiti tu consider thē proprieti ov ünīting in thē memōrial, thē charman ov hwich wōa Prof. J. D. Johnson, LL. D., wel-nōn aa wun ov thē formōst Anglo-Saxon scolarz in thē Soufh. Thā mad an abl rēpōrt in favor ov acshun, hwich haa bin printed. But thē Industrial Ünivērsiti ov Illinois sēmē tu bē thē baner institūshun. It is rēpōrted that thē hol ov its faculti and ēlmōst ēl ov its 300 stūdentz ār in favor ov thē rēfōrm, and hav ōrganīzd aa a Speling Rēfōrm Asoshiashun fōr imēdiat amendmēt ov thār on speling and general mishneri wōrk.

Thē memōrial wōa brōt befōr thē American Institūte ov Instrucshun, hwich reasolvd tu ünīt in it. 10,000 tēcherz wūr sed tu bē at thē mēting. Thē Dēpārtmēt ov Public Instrucshun ov thē çiti ov Çhicago tuk up thē mater, and its Bōrd ov Edūcāshun ünanimusli adoptēd a rezolūshun: Thāt thē Secrēteri ov thē Bōrd corēspōnd with thē princīpal scul bōrdz and edūcāshunal asoshiashunz ov thē cuntri, with a vū tu cō-ōperāshun in thē rēfōrm ov English speling.

Ç çōrcūlar lēter wōa acōrdingli ishūd, asking such Bōrdz tu ünīt in thē memōrial tu Çōngres, and it is rēçevīng meni favorabl rēspōnsēa.

Dūring thē Crīsmas holidāz a lārg pārt ov thē tēcherz and scul ofīçerz, and, indēd, ov ēl pōrsunz interested in edūcāshun in thī cuntri, had thār atēnshun tōrnd tu thē speling rēfōrm. Thē Stat Tēcherz' Asoshiashunz met in meni statz, and in thōz in hwich thā did nōt, thār wūr veri general mētingz ov caunti institūts ōr uthr smōlēr asoshiashunz. At thēz mētingz thī yēr ēlmōst everihwār papērz wūr red and discōshunz had on thī rēfōrm. Thēz wūr rēpōrted in edūcāshunal and uthr papērz, and in meni plāçēz folōd bī uthr artīclē on thē subjēct.

Thē Massachusētts Tēcherz' Asoshiashun met at Worcester, Dēçembēr 26. J. A. Allen red a papēr on "Speling Rēfōrm, hwich provōkt a livli discōshun, and led tu thē apōintmēt ov a comiti tu

cö-operat with the American Filological Asoshiasshun in memorializing Cöngres for the establishment ov a comishun tu investigat the orthografi ov the Englich laygwag, and report upon reforme in it. The report woe adopted and Messrs. D. B. Hagar, Salem; N. T. Allen, Newton; B. F. Twæd, Boston; A. P. Stone, Springfield; A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater, wör aointed.

The Illinoëis Stat Têcheræ' Asoshiasshun met at Springfield, Dec. 29. Dr. Willard, ov the Çhicago Hî Scûl, red a paper on Hau tu Sistematiæ Egglish Orthografi," hwich woe printed in several paperz. A discushun folod and a comiti on speling reform woe aointed, tu report next yêr.

The Iowa Stat Têcheræ' Asoshiasshun past the folowing: Rezolvd, That wê hârtili apruv the acshun ov the Filolegical Asoshiasshun in asking ov Cöngres a comishun tu examin intu the deajrabiliti ov reform in Englich speling.

The Michigan Stat Têcheræ' Asoshiasshun had the speling reform brôt befor them by E. O. Vaile, editor ov the Educashunal Weekly, Çhicago.

In Indiana and Wiscensin it woe elsö up. It ia sed in a report tu the Legislatür ov Wiscensin on the subject that "nêrli 400 rezidents ov Wiscensin, oficerz and profesorz in our celeges and têcheræ in our public scûle, hav ünited in a memorial tu Cöngres asking the aointment ov a nashunal comiti."

As a specimen ov the acshun ov the caunti institütz, wê giv the folowing: Rezolvd, That wê (the têcheræ ov the Schuylkill County Institüt, Pa.) endörs the last anüal apel ov the American Filolegical Asoshiasshun tu têcheræ, editorz, and the inteligent public tu mak a beginning in the reform ov dropping the üsles *e* in the wûrda *have*, *give*, and *live*.

The Northampton Caunti Institüt, Pa., past in substanc the rezolûshun recomended in the Çhicago çürçûlar in favor ov recwesting our legislatüre, stat and nashunal, tu aoint comishuna tu investigat and report hwot can bë dun tu simplifi our speling.

Rezolûshuna in favor ov reform hav bin further past, and comitiæ aointed upen it, bi the Stat Têcheræ' asoshiasshuna ov New Yerk, Pennsylvania, Ohio, New Jeraey, Missouri, and Virginia.

In meni casez, stat legislashun has bin invökt, as wel as nashunal. Stat comishuna hav, in fact, bin êthorizd bi the legislatüre ov Connecticut, Wiscensin, and Pennsylvania.

The text-buk comishun ov the stat ov Wiscensin mad a report on speling reform Jan. 8, 1879. It ia a comprehensiv and impresiv argüment in favor ov the reform and ov stat acshun tu promot it. It propöæz that the superintendent ov public instrucsshun bë êthorizd tu supplî the scûle ov the stat with a dicshuneri embodying an amended orthografi in conecshun with the prezent aprüvd orthografi. The report woe prepar'd bi Senator George H. Paul, ov Milwaukee, and ia everihwar recognizd as an abl and impörtant documnt.

Senator W. W. Fowler, çharman ov the Connecticut Legislativ Comishun, hwich consists further ov Profs. Whitney and Trumbull ov Yale, Hært ov Trinity, and Van Benshoten ov Wesleyan

Univërsiti, with Hon. B. G. Northup, Secreteri ov Edücashun, ia preparîng a volüm on the subject för publicashun in advanç ov the next seshun ov the legislatür.

The Hon. A. H. Stephens, ov Georgia, hu ia wörmli interested in the reförm, hæ takn charg ov the memoriäl tu Cöngres, and it wil probabli bë hörd from at the next seshun.

The Pres hæ not neglected the subject. The Speling Reförm Asoshiashun ishüa a Buletin; the edücashunal jörnala hav bin spe-shali interested—speling reförm depårtments är tu bë found in the New Enggland Jörnäl ov Edücashun and in the Edücashunal Weekly ov Chicogo, and cömunicashuna and uthër ärticla hav bin frëcwent in meni jörnala—in the New Yörk Tîmea, för exampl, the Chicogo Tribüne, and the St. Louis Republican. Mör elaborat ärticla hav bin publisht in the magazîna—as in The Galaxy, The Atlantic, The Athenæum, The Academy, and in the transacshuna ov the Filological Asoshiashun, the American Institut ov Instrucshun, and in buks lik Max Müller's "Chips from a German Workshop," Whitney's "Oriental and Linguistic Studies," Hadley's "Philological and Critical Essays," and Ellis's wörks. Tu impörtant nü buks hav bin holi devoted tu this subject—wun bi Mr. Sweet, förmër President ov the Filological Soçieti ov London; wun bi Mr. J. H. Gladstone. The Speling Reförm Buletin för Äpril, 1878, contana a bibliografi ov this literatür, and it çörtinli maks a respectabl shö.

Prof. Edward Nerth, ov Hamilton Cöleg, mad a lörned and förçibl plë för the reförm beför a convenshun ov scül-cömishunera and süperintendents at Ütica, N. Y., hwich wæs printed in the Ütica Mörning Herald and uthër papera as far west as Chicogo.

Prof. L. H. Carpenter, ov the Univërsiti ov Wiscönsin, the wel-nön Anglo-Saxon scolar, and öthor, red an abl paper in favor ov reförm beför the Stat Tëchera' Asoshiashun at Genève. It ia printed as a pamphlet.

A livli discushun hæa bin göing on in the Chicogo Tribüne, hwich hæa bröt out a number ov skëma ov reförm and the üsüäl öbjecshuna tu öl ov them. Thär ia a grat dël ov wörk tu bë dun yet, and the Chicogo reförmera sëm tu bë redi för it.

Mr. T. R. Vickroy, our enthüsiastic and indefatigabl director för the Sauthwest, hæa complëted his "Reading Book," and it hæa bin publisht bi Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co., Çinçinnati. It ia printed in the alfabet and speling ov the Asoshiashun, and wil bë a grat help tu the reförm.

Steiger's "Year-Book ov Edücashun" för 1878 giva a ful acount ov the speling reförm för the yer in the ärticl "Örthogرافي." Appleton's "Year-Book" ölsö promiscæ a similar ärticl.

In öl this cöpius expreshun ov interest I du net nö ov a singl scolar ör eminent edücator ov the nü generashun hu hæa cum out in favor ov the öld speling. Our illustrius and venerabl chëf, the Hon. George P. Märsh, the American Minister tu Italy, sea that in his örli lif hë, lik möst litereri men ov that tîm, wæs prejudict agenst this reförm; but the wat ov the argüment in its favor hæa convinçt him ov its neçesiti. And a similar declarashun ia mad bi Dr. Mörris, and bi uthera ov our eldera. Sumtîma, it must bë confest, thea

venerabl ðheritia, hū pla thar pārt æ refōrmers with brav fæcæ tu thē public, wār a lugūbrius luk in priuat, and hōp thē refōrm ma nōt cum in thar tīm. But ēvn Richard Grant White, hū is æ much ov an ireconçilabl æ enibodi, clame tu bē a refōrmer, and recogñizea amended speling aa havīng becum a fashun. Hau fār this fashun hæz gen in Eggland ma bē gatherd froom thē fōlōing pasæj in Mrs. Lewes' latest buk, "Theophrastus Such":

"I hav a sort ov valet and factōtum, an exelent, respectabl sūrvant, hūz speling is sō unvishiati bī nōn fonetic absōrditia that hē rīts *night* æ *nit*. Wun da, lūking ovēr hie acounts, I sed tu him, jocosli: 'Yū ār in thē latest fashun with yōr speling, Pummel. Mōst pēpl spel 'night' with a *gh* betwēn thē *i* and *t*; but thē gratest scolara nau spel æ yū dū.' 'Sō I supōa, sūr,' sed Pummel; 'I'v sēn it with a *gh*; but I'v nōwæz giv in tu that myself.' Yū wud never catch Pummel in an interjecshun ov sūrpriæ."

Sō much fōr our fōrst object; disatisfacshun with thē old speling and general interest in thē refōrm. Hwōt hav wē dun on thē pōsiti v sīd? Hwōt dū wē propōa fōr thē nū speling?

In thē fōrst plaç wē hav put fōrth an idēal alfabet, and thē principle hwich control orthografi. This wōz left tu thē filologists. Mōst ov thē comiti wōr wel-nōn masters ov thē general subject—Whitney, Haldeman, Trumbull, Child; but nun ov them had eni skēm ov hie ōn. Thæ invītēd skēma, and thæ rēçēvd them bī thē barelful. Hwōt thæ dū nōt nau nō ov skēma is nōt wōrth nōing. Thē alfabet is a Roman alfabet, veri much on thē sam plan æ refōrmd German and Spanīsh. It fixea thē old letera in thar Rōman and Anglo-Saxon pauera aa nērli aa ma bē; accepta thē digraf cōsonants in *h* (*th*, *ch*, *sh*, etc.), and declāræ it neçeseri tu hav thrē nū letera fōr elementeri vauela hwich wōr unōn tu thē ōrli Rōmanæ—thōa in *fat*, *not*, *but*. Fōr thēa it sugests modīfīcashunz ov *a*, *o*, and *u*. A diacritical mārķ is aded, hwen grat acūraçi is nēded, tu denōt a lōng vauel saund.

This alfabet wōz set fōrth nōt with eni hōp ov its imēdiat adopshun, but aa a gīd in making mīnor changea. *Could* is a standing exampl ov unpārdunabl speling. Thē *l* is a shēr blunder; thē *ou* hæz a rōng saund. Shal wē rīt *cud*, *cood*, *kud*, *kood*, *cud*, ōr hwōt? Befor wē can tel wē must fix our idēal Engglish alfabet.

Having this setld, it hæz bin thē pōliçi ov thē Asōshīashun tu encōrag ōl sōrts ov changea hwich tend toard it. Onli thrē nū tips, and thēa wel-nōn fōrma, ār recwīrd fōr thē ultimati alfabet. But publishers and tēchēra ashūr us that Dr. Leīgh's modīfīd tips can bē ūad in meni publicashunz hwār it is nōt pōsibl at preent tu chang thē speling. Wē hav, acōrdīngli, rēcōmendēd and ūad in our ōn publicashunz a number ov nū tips līk thōa ov Dr. Leīgh—*a*, *ē*, *g*, *ç* (cedila), *z* (revert s), etc.

Ōn thē uthē hand, meni changea ov speling ār pōsibl without thē ūs ov eni nū tips. Thē drepīng ov sīlent letera afōrda thē mōst ōbvīus exampla.

Wē hav, acōrdīngli, rēcōmendēd and adoptēd varius speshal rūla fōr speling without nū tips. A set ov fīv ov thēa hæz cum tu bē wīdli nōn under thē nam ov thē "Fū Nū Rūla." Thæ ār æ fōlōe:

1. Omit *a* from the digraf *ea* when pronounced as *e* short, as in *hed*, *helth*, etc. 2. Omit silent final *e* after *a* short vowel, as in *hav*, *giv*, etc. 3. Rite *f* for *ph* in such words as *alfabet*, *fantom*, etc. Change *ed* final to *t* where it has the sound of *t*, as *ia* *lasht*, *imprest*, etc.

At the meeting of the American Filological Association, in 1878, the Comiti on the Reform of English Spelling—Prof. F. A. March, chairman; Profs. W. D. Whitney and J. H. Trumbull, of Yale College; Prof. S. S. Haldeman, of the University of Pennsylvania—reported as follows:

In accordance with the plan of preparing a list of words for which an amended spelling may be adopted concurrent with that now in use, as suggested by President J. Hammond Trumbull, at the session of 1875, and favorably reported upon by the comiti of that session, the comiti now present the following words as the beginning of such list, and recommend them for immediate use: *Ar*, *catalog*, *definit*, *gard*, *giv*, *hav*, *infini*, *liv*, *tho*, *thru*, *wisht*.

The Spelling Reform Association has in the same way taken up and specially recommended *hav*, *giv*, and *liv*.

We had better not boast of our success in getting any of these changes into actual use. Nothing has been printed in our alphabet but a few illustrative specimens. It still remains the alphabet of the future. Printing with more or less of Dr. Leigh's tips has been more common. The Filological Association has had to fonts of these tips cut to match those used in the "Proceedings" and in the "Transactions," and papers will be printed in both in any spelling which either of them may adopt in harmony with the reports. The new volume contains such papers. In the month of August, 1877, at Chicago, Ill., the Adams, Blackmer & Lyon Publishing Company, O. C. Blackmer, President, began to introduce the alphabet of the Spelling Reform Association into their widely circulated periodical, The Little Folks. These letters were introduced gradually in successive months. It now announces that it contains all the new letters, and claims that the embarrassment now won, but assist in pronunciation.

It has already been mentioned that Mr. Vickroy, our director for the Southwest, has prepared a "Reading Book" for us. He has also lately issued the first number of a paper, called the Phonetic Teacher, printed with the same tips. The Missouri State Teachers' Association has directed the volume of its "Proceedings" this year to be printed in the same alphabet. Articles have appeared in it in the New England Journal of Education and specimens in many newspapers and periodicals. Dr. Leigh's school books are well-known and widely used. The influence in favor of new tips exerted by the publications of Pitman, Parkhurst, and Langley may also be mentioned. Pitman's Journal is a weekly, with a circulation of some 11,000 copies. A large number of sporadic issues in tips invented by enterprising Americans diversify the field of view.

Printing in pure phonetic spelling, or with new tips, seems as yet to be a misadventure. It costs a good deal of money, and the return is a manly sentiment. It is, however, a primary necessity in order to keep our goal before us, and direct all minor changes; as well as for a metric or key alphabet.

Dhë "fiv rule" and dhë "elevn wörds" giv beter promis. A veri lārg number ov ārticls hav apērd with them in dhë nūspapērs. Dhë hav met with speshal favor among printērs, and hav bin ūed mōr ēr les in ālmōst ēl dhë ōrganz ov dhë craft. Dhë Electrotyper, ov Chīcogo, has adoptēd dhë elevn wörds, and sēa in its last īshū:

"Dhīs mōvment, tu hwīch Dhë Electrotyper has givn adhēzhun, and hwīch it īs endeavoring tu promōt, īs ganing strengfth dali."

Our cōtemporeries ov Dhë Type Founder hav publisht a cārful ritn ārticl upōn dhē subject, hwīch, bī dhē wa, has bin īshud in pamphlet fōrm, az wun ov dhē Buletins ov dhē Speling Rēfōrm Asoshiashun; Dhë Electrotipe Jurnal wōrmli advocats dhē rēfōrm, and wil hērafter cōfōrm tu dhē elevn amendēd spelings rēcōmendēd bī dhē American Filolōgical Asoshiashun; Dhë Chīcogo Spēcimen publishez dhē emendashuns, and sēz that thā ōt tu bē adoptēd at wun; Dhë American Newspaper Rēpōrtēr favors dhē rēfōrm, and has publisht several ārticls advocating it: Dhë Quēdrat, Pittsbōrg, favors dhē chang and ma ultimatlī adopt it; and fū shōtful printērs, sō fār az wē can lōrn, hav ōt tu sē agēnst dhē adopshun ov dhē emendashuns rēcōmendēd.

A number ov ōrganz ov varius sōshal rēfōrms hav adoptēd sum ov thēs wörds.

Dhë Lībreri Jurnal īs dōing a gud wōrk in dhē sam wa. And wē hav rēn tu bēlēv that mēni editōrs and publishers ov dhē pōpūlar gēnēral nūspapērs ār plōting an īnsurēcshun hwīch ma prūv tu bē a revolūshun. On this subject wē shal hav a papēr at this sēsshun frōm wun ov dhē lēding editōrs, Mr. Nōrth, ov dhē Ūtica Herald.

Spēntific speshalists ār helping, bī amēnding tēcnical tōrms.

C. A. Cutter, dhē lībrarian ov dhē Boston Athēnēum, dhē eminent ōthor ov dhē "Rūla fōr a Dicshuneri Catalog," publisht bī dhē Ūnitēd States, put at dhē hed ov dhē Bibliōgrafi in dhē Lībreri Jurnal this nōt:

"Dhë American Filolōgical Asoshiashun, dhē ōnli bēdi in dhē cuntrī hwīch can bē sēd tu bē ov enī ōfheriti in dhē mater ov lagwag, has publisht a list ov ten [elevn] wörds in hwīch it rēcōmendēd an imprūvd speling. With dhē grater pārt ov dhē list lībrarians hav nō speshal cōncōrn, but with rēgārd tu 'Catalog' I fēl that wē ār cōld upōn tu dēcid hwēthēr wē wil slavishli fōlō dhē ōbjēcshunabl ōrthōgrafi ov thē past, ēr wil mak an ēfōrt, at a tīm hwen thār īs ēvērī chānc ov its bēing succēsful, tu ēfēct sum imprūvment. In this cas dhē rēsponsibilitī rēsts upōn catalogērs. Dhē pōpēr pūrsunz tu introdūc nū fōrms ov tēcnical wörds ār thōs ārtēans hū hav mōst tu dū with them. I shal, tharfōr, in dhē fōlōing nōts (ēxcept cōwōting) omit dhē supōrfluous *ue*. I am wēl awār that dhē unwuntēd apēranç ov dhē wōrd wil bē distastful fōr a tīm tu mēni rēdērs, īncōlūding mīself; but thē advāntāgēs ov dhē shōrtēr fōrm ār enuf tu cōmpensat fōr dhē tēmpōreri ānōianç. Tu bibliōgrafērs, hū ār acustūmd tu dhē German 'Katalog,' thē ēfōrt tu gēt ūad tu 'catalog' shud hārdli bē pērcēptibl."

Sīnç that tīm hē has ūad this speling ēntīrli. Mēni ūthēr lībrarians hav adoptēd it, and ūz it in thār ārticls and cōrēspondēnc. Dhē editōr ov Dhë Jurnal fīndē that this īnfluēnc has spred sō fast that

hè reçeṽa mōr spelinge "catalog" than with the *æ*. The President øv the American Lībreri Asoshiashun, having dauts øv the wiadum øv the chang, incwīria wūr sent tu a number øv lēding lībrarians, asking thār opinyun. The ansera wūr sō encōraging that Mr. Cutter nau propōæz tu adept "bibliografi." This shōa hau much a lēding speshalist ma dū with a litl efort.

T. B. Sprague, M. A., Viç President øv the Institut øv Actüeria, England, haa ishūd a monograf in reförmd speling øn "Dua Vac-çinashun Aförd eni Protecshun Agenst Smøl-pox?" Hè sez: "I beløv that speling reförmera shud ūa thār utmōst influenç tu get a pārshali reförmd speling adepted in trēting øv subjects øv general interest sō that the public ma becum familiarizd with the idea that a speling reförm is possibl." The nü dres fits a sientific paper pūrfectli.

The sientists hav fūrther takn up the mater øv an idēal ør metric alfabet and speling, tu bē ūed cōcūrentli with the present, fōr sientific purposez mēli. Everi English dicshneri haa tu hav such an idēal alfabet tu ūa in its pronunshiashun. Everi filolegical wōrk haa the sam neçesiti. Sō with sientific wōrka trēting øv fōrin cuntria and giving the pronunshiashun øv fōrin namæ. Aa a mater øv fact ech øv aur dicshneria—Webster, Worcester, Chambers, Stormonfh, and the lik—haa a diferent kē alfabet, ech wōrs than the øther; and filolegists ār about aa bad. It wud bē a prodigus gan if thār wūr an agrēment øn the alfabet øv the fütür simpli fōr sientific ūs.

The Nashunal Asoshiashun øv Great Britain fōr the Promōshun øv Sōshal Sjenç had this mater befōr them in a paper bi Prof. Newman, red tu the Cōngres at Chettenham, in October, 1878. It wōa reförd tu the Edūcashun Depārtnent, hwich raad a speshal cōmiti upōn it, hū hav givn it much atenshun, and finali past ūnanimusli a rezolūshn in favor øv an alternativ methud øv speling. Tha sa:

Such an alternativ methud wud bē at wunç ūsful: 1. Fōr indicating the pronunshiashun øv eni wōrd ør nam that ma nōt bē familiar tu ørdineri rēdera. 2d. Fōr tēching the proper pronunshiashun øv wōrda in scūla, and thuæ cūring vulgariema. 3d. Fōr representing diferent dīalecets øv individuāl pecūlyaritia. 4th. Fōr shōing the pronunshiashun øv fōrin langwagea. This alternativ methud, if generali aprūvd, wud gradūali becum a cōcūrent methud and perhaps eventūali wud displæc the present irregūlar speling (just aa Arabic nūmerala hav generali displæc the Rōman nūmerala). In the mēntīm it wud sōrv tu indicat the direcshun in hwich eni pārshal reförma øv the cōrent speling shud bē mad.

Tha ār in daut about a sūtabl øfhēriti tu inishiat acshun. It wil bē rememberd that aur Memorials tu Cōngres contemplat a joint cōmishun frōm the guvernments øv the English-spēking nashuna, tu deçid this mater.

Thār ār tu impōrtant publicashuna nau at hand hwich cōl fōr such a deçizhun—the Grat Historical Dicshneri øv the English Filolegical Sōçeti and the amended vōrshun øv the English Bībl. The Dicshneri haa nau bin mōr than twenti yēa in making. The material acūmūlated fōr it is spōkn øv bi the tun'a wat. The

Univërsiti ov Oxford hav nau undertakn tu print it, and the furst velüm wil apër in 1882.

It wil bë wun ov the grat buks ov the world; a standard work för generashuna. Dr. Murray, Prezident ov the Filolëgical Soçieti, hu is its editor, wishea tu put the kë pronunshiashun in an agrëd förm ov speling. It is wörth agreing för. If it is agrëd upon and establisht in the Dicshuneri, wë ma wel hōp tu sē an edishun ov the nü translashun ov the Bībl spëdili ishud in it. And then wë ma farli sa that the rëförm stande on an establisht sistem and mefhud, lik the metric sistem ov wats and mëzhura, and wë shal hav nuthing förther tu dū but push it intu üs.

Mëntim, it wud sëm that ðhoræ and publishers mīt find the Filolëgical Asoshiashun a sufishent ðheriti för the imëdiat üs ov such rëförmnd speling as tha think tu bë rëznabl and economical. ðhoræ and editors ar ðheriti tu the masea.

Thë ar is ful ov hōp. Wë nō, tu bë shūr, that the rëförm can not bë acomplisht in a da. Nō generashun rërd in the old speling can bë expected tu adopt the nü wun för comun litereri üs. Thar prejudice ma bë overcum and thar rëen convincē sō för that tha wil agrë that thar children shal bë tōt the beter wa. A generashun, präbabi tū or thrë generashuna, must grö up familiar with the nü speling beför it can becum ünivërsal. It is sumtīma sed in public discushuna that the chang ma cum raund för our grat grandchildren, in 1976, and this is sed sarcasticali, as tho it wūr a rëen för epōsing imëdiat acshun. But that is pār tōk för a scolar or a philanthropist.

If this rëförm is tu tak a çentüri, it is hī tīm it wūr begun. Thë trū scolar and wörker ov tu-da rejoyçes with ðl hia mīt in the spirit ov that nobl ülogium hwich Lörd Bacon pronauçes on Henry VII.:

"Hia löa, hūso märks them wel, wūr dëp and net vulgar, net mad on the spūr ov a particulär ecashun för the prëzent, but out ov providenç för the fütür; that hë mīt mak the estat ov hia pëpl mör and mör hapi, after the maner ov legislators in the anshent and heröical tīma."

Thë minüts ov the last mëting, and ov the Execütiv Cömiti wūr red bī the Secreteri. A paper wæs red bī Mrs. E. B. Börne, ov New Yörk, fröm Viç Prezident E. Jōnes, B. A., ov Liverpool, England, on

SPELING RËFÖRM IN ENGLAND.

[In the rest ov the pages the macron, hwich indicates a long vowel sound, wil not be used, except ocasionaly az a "cautionary signal."]

Speling Reform is a mëna tu an end; this end bëing the impruvment and extenshun ov Edücashun in the best and hjest sens, för ðl Englich-spëking pëpla, and för ðl the raçes dependent or conected with the Anglo-Saxon raç bī hwetever tīa, the world over.

Thë object and am ov Edücashun is tu develop the mental, möræl, and fiseal pauers ov the individüal and ov comünitiz, so as tu secür the gratest amaunt ov pursunal and soshal hapines hwich a beneficiënt Crëator intended hia intelligent crëtüra shud enjoi.

RAPID PROGRES OV EDUCASHUN IN ENGLAND.

Within the past fü yëra, the British Parliment has decreed, that everi child in Great Britain must atend an efishent scül from the ag ev 5 tu 13, continüusli for at lest for aurs everi da for fiv daz in the wëk, and for not les than forti wëks in the yër, unles prevented bi sicnes or uther unavoidabl cōa.

America ia justli praud ev its Public Scül Incum, hwich, acerd-ing tu the report ev the Edücashun Cemishuner, amauvts tu \$80,-000,000, or £16,000,000. This, hauever, inclüda meni colegea and scüla for hjer edücashun. In Eggländ, at the rat ev £2 pur child pur Anum, with a prezent atendanç ev about thre milyuna, and an expected atendanç ev fiv milyuna, our present expenditür ev about £6,000,000 wil, in a fü yëra, bë not far shert ev £10,000,000 pur anum from ol sorçea.

Considering that the furst decad ev the 19th çentüri had past awa befor eni sistematiçeforts wur mad in Eggländ for the Edücashun ev the pëpl, and that it woa not until about the midl ev the çentüri that the Government tuk the mater in hand, cōshusli at furst, and with fer and trembling; the pögres mad in the public provizhun for Edücashun ia truli marvelous.

"Meni a Herod has söt the yung child ev Popülar Edücashun." "It wud bë dangerus tu instruct the cōmun pëpl; it wud mak them discontented with thar condishun." A noblman, the uther da, bëing askt tu suport Fonetic Speling, replid that "it wud mak nolegj tu esi for the mas ev agricultüral laborera and uthera, that it wud led them tu bë disatisfid with thar lot, and tu rebel agenst thar mastera." It wud bë rong tu chargj ol the oponents ev Speling Reform with similar motive, but it ia unförtünat for them that tha ar found in bad compani. If the Pauera ev darknes had cōbind tu devja the most efectiv mēna for perpetüating "Popülar Ignoranç," it wud bë difficult tu invent an instrument beter fited for that purpus than "English speling as it ia."

DISATISFACSHUN WITH PRESENT RESULTS IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

Ar the results ev the vast and costli mashineri set up bi the Guv-ernment for the promoshun ev edücashun satisfactori? Ia the tim ev children in Public Elementeri Scüla spent tu the best advantag? Du wë get the wurfh ev the outla ev funda upon scüla in üsul nolegj ev a practical kind? Thēa ar cweschunz that ar beginning tu bë askt öminusli, and tha wil prüv so meni nala in the cofin ev cacegrafi. Nobedi ia satisfid with the pögres ev the children in our scüla. The Edücashun Department yër after yër repëts this complant:

"The rezults ar not satisfactori; the reports sho the larg propor-shun ev children attending our scüla hū ar not preented tu the inspector tu giv prüf ev the results ev thar instructshun, and the mēger natür ev the rezults atand bi meni ev thoa hū wur examinid."

The mēger natür ev the rezults atand in English scüla ma be sen from the fact that onli wun pur çent ev the Grants (Apropriashunz) voted bi Parliment for scüla ia pad for eni subject beyond Rëding, Riting, Speling, and Arithmetiç, with sum elementeri nolegj ev Gëografi, Gramar, Histori, and Singing.

Dhè ofheritia hithertu du net sèm tu sè hwer thè shu pinchea, and, insted ov puting thè sadl on thè proper hors—our untèchabl speling—the scrü up thè techers tu that degrè ov tenshun in thar wurk as sumtîma tu prodüc fatal results, and in meni instances effects injurius tu thè helth ov both tèchers and scolara.

Dher is a groing demand for a mor liberal rang ov studie in thè scula, but thè anser ov thè ofheritia is, “No room.”

Her is a number ov subjects crauded out or drivn tu a corner in our scula. Speking ov Peni Banks, thè venerabl President ov thè Liverpool Cauncil ov Edücashun sed thè uther da:

“It is litl short ov a crim tu neglect eni oportüniti ov tèching habits ov thrift and providenc tu thè rjaing generashun.”

Mr. Wm. Rathbone, M. P., haæ ofn spokn tu thè sam efect. Hwî ar net Peni Banks in everi Public Elementeri Scul in Liverpool? Simpli becoæ thè wun our a wèk can not bè spard from thè cöching neceseri fôr thè examinashun in speling.*

In thè Haus ov Cömuna everi seshun, and in meni Scul Borda and uther Asemblia in thè cuntri, cömplants ar ofn mad, that Müzic, Object Lesuna, Dhè Lœa ov Helth, Cukeri, and uther üsful subjects ar net mor extensivli töt in Public Elementeri Scula. Dhè redi anser ov thè Ofheritia tu thæ apèls is: “Luk at thè redicülsli smel proporshun ov children wè ar abl tu turn out hû can rëd tolerabli and spel corectli.”

FONETIC SPELING THE ONLI REMEDI.

Statsmen lik Mr. Lowe, and Edücatora lik Bishop Temple sè clërli that thè remedî for this is thè adöpshun ov a Fonetic Sistem ov Speling.

It is no lönger a mater ov daut, or ov experiment that children entering scul at thè ag ov fiv ma bè töt on *eni* Fonetic Sistem Rëding and Speling farli wel bi thè ag ov sevn. Dhè rest ov thar tîm at scul wud bè devoted tu thè studi ov thè üsful subjects demanded fôr them. Dhè children nau ask fôr bred and wè giv them a ston; fed them on husks!

Hwot a splendid oportüniti is aforded bi our Bord and Volunteri Scula, with compulsori atendanç up tu thè ag ov 13 or 14, fôr our fütür artizana tu bè töt thè elements ov mecanics, thè propertiz ov ar and weter, and uther facts ov fisaical sjenç, hwich it is so important tha shud understand, and hwich ar esenshal tu thè prosperiti ov thè cuntri, but hwich ar nau crauded out bi thè öl-engrosing, never-ending, stil begining demanda ov speling!!

Englishmen, with thar kën sens ov thè valü ov muni, wil net continü tu pa milyuna anüali fôr duing badli in ten yëra, wurk hwich ma bè dun beter in tü. Sentimental venerashun fôr old institushuna is öl veri wel in its wa, but èvn Temple Bar, with its hori asoshiashuna, haæ bin remuved at last, thè obstrucshuna tu thè trafic ov London having becum intolerabl.

OBJECSHUNS IN THEIR LUDICRUS ASPECT.

Dhè scofera at speling Reform ar themselva being atakt bi thar on wepuna. A wag asks if wè spel—“beauty,” hwî net spel

"duty" "deauty"? Hwi not spel "judge" "dgeuj," sinç the furst and the last consonants in the wurd hav preçisli the sam saund? or, rather, hwi not "juj"? The Rt. Hon. Robt. Lowe, wun ov the Vjç Presidents ov the Speling Reform Asoshieshun and formerli Minister ov Edücashun, has chalengd the Haus ov Comuns that not haf-a-duzn ov its members can spel of-hand the wurd "unparalleled." Woe the "r" tu bë dubld? Woe the "l" tu bë dubld in wun or both cases? Thea wud bë cweschuna tu puzl Hon. and Rt. Hon. members olmost as much as turma ov the trëti ov Berlin, and yet a child ov ten yëra in a Welsh celyeri scul wud bë plukt bi an Inspector for falür in speling a wurd ov this kind.

A serio-comic stori is told ov a veri devout theölogical profesor having reçevd a leter from wun ov the alumnj ov hia cölegj hū had gøn tu hie furst charg in a cuntri church. Horibl tu relat, the yung minister had tu or thrë orthografical blunders in the leter adrest tu hie tütör. The gud old man woe so shëkt that hë sumund the stü-dents tu a prär mëting, and askt them tu pra urnestli that nun ov thar stüdents in fütür shud disgraç thar alma mater bi bad speling.

The lat Lord Palmerston thretend tu dismis hie secreteri becöe the later spelt "wagon" with wun g, tho "gud ötheritie" wur givn in suport ov that speling. Lord Malmesbury ridicüla the idëa ov making speling the "wun thing nëdful" in the Çivil Surviç examin-ashun, and hë declare that from documënts in hia pöaeshun no Prjın Minister from Lord Bute tu Lord Palmerston cud hav past the speling test.

As the hevi artileri ov the filölogists has efectüali silençt the pop-guna ov the etimologists, as far as argüment is conçurnd, a litl banter and raleri ma surv a purpus.

Eni stik is gud enuf tu bët a bad dog with. Wë ma fël sinçer simpatfi for the man hū apëla tu us in such a stran as this:

"Yu wil abolish öl distingcshun between the educatëd and the ignorant. Speling is the wun acomplishment I prjided mişelf upon. I wun öl the prjizea at the Speling Bëz and no wun has ever found më triping in speling. Nau, yu propoa tu mak everi urchin in a ragëd scul ëcwal tu mişelf. It is reali tū bad."

It is tū much, hauever, for our frenda tu expect that the march ov Edücashun is tu bë stopt for such rëana.

THE HOUSE OV COMUNS AND FONETIC SPELING.

The batl ov rashunal speling must ultimätli bë föt out as regards England, at lëst, in the British Haus ov Comuna. Öldredi ther ar members prepar'd, hwen the tım cumä, tu champiun the cöe in the Haus. The cöstic and inçisiv elocwenç ov Mr. Lowe, hwich has shaterd meni an öbstrucshun tu üsful reforma, is ther hwen nëded. Sir Charlee Reed, the üniversali onord and trusted Charman ov the London Scul Bord, wil, in öl probabiliti, hav a set in the next Par-liment, hwer hie comprehensiv grasp ov öl subjects baring on edü-cashun, hie pleasant maner, and bizen tact wil bë invalüabl in the discushun ov the cweschun. Dha wil bë wel suported bi Mr. Henry Richard, hūa father woe wun ov the chëf promotëra ov Sunda Scula in Walea. Mr. Richard wil bë abl tu testifi tu the gud efects ov a

Fonetic Sistem ov speling in Wales, hwer it ia an excepshun tu ffind eni wun unabl tu red the nativ tung, and hwer a far larger proporshun ov buks and periodicals ar böt and red than in Enggland, oltho ther ar no da sculz or pad tēchera tu tēch the Welsh langwag. Mr. Wm. Rathbone, the respected Member for Liverpool, hū, with his famili, has dun so much tu promot edūcāshun in his nativ taun, wil bē faund redi tu help hwen help ia wōnted, and the sam mā bē sec^d ov Messrs. G. Otto Trevelyan, Mundella, Anderson, R. Davies, and others. Wē ar elredi indeted tu the gratest ov living statsmen — ov hūm it mā bē mor truli sed than ov most men that everifhing that concērna hūmaniti ia ov interest tu him — for wurdz ov simpathi and ov counsel in this muvmēt, and his valūabl ad and asistanç mā bē calculated upon; I mēn, ov cōrs, William Ewart Gladstone. Seldum haz eni reform cum befor the public ov Enggland bact bi such an ara ov lurning, with such an urnest practical nēcēsiti and with so febl an opozishun. Wē mā ol bē stimūlated bi the urnest wurdz ov Mr. Pitman:

“Tu mē it sēmz that next tu the promulgashun ov our divin religun, ther ia nūthing in the prezent da so important as Phonetic Speling.”

THE SPELING REFORM ASOSHIASHUN IN LONDON.

It wil bē the object and am ov the Speling Reform Asoshiashun latli formd in Lōndon tu bring intu a focus the scaterd rāz ov interest felt in this subject bi frendz ov Edūcāshun thruout the United Kingdum and the world.

The Asoshiashun has veri wjālī abstand from comiting itself tu an apruval ov eni wun ov the meni skēmz ov Reformd Speling that hav bin propounded. In its colectiv capaçiti the Asoshiashun regards the varius sistemz proposd as tentativ, subjectiv, experimental, provizhunal. Fū, if eni, ov the eñhorz ov skēmz in Enggland regard thar propozalz in eni uther līt, and hwether thar eñhorz wish it or not, everi skēm must bē subject tu the apruval ov public opinyun, and the sageshun ov Government eñheriti in sum form or uther.

It mā bē considerd a fār cweschun for discushun hwether eni, and if eni hau meni, nū letērz mā bē recwīrd for a practical everi-da sistem ov Phonetic Speling tu bē ūad bi everibōdi, and ol over the world. Hwether ol the letērz ov the prezent alfabet shud retēn the saund tha hav eñnest in the cūrent Engglish speling, or hwether sum ov the letērz shud hav hwet mā bē supōzd tu bē thar clasical or thar cōntinental pauērz. Hwether dīacritical marks ar tu bē prefurd tu digrafs, and meni uther points that ar debatabl and debated.

The spirit in whiçh thes discushunz shud bē conducted ia wel exprest in the foloing wurdz ov Mr. I. Pitman:

“Ther ar meni skēmz for cōrecting the prezent admittedli absurd orthōgrafi, and hū ia tu bē the jug as tu hwich ia tu bē adopted? Çurtenli not the projectōrz. It can not bē utherwīz than that meni skēmz shud bē prezented. Let them ol bē lad befor the public, and the wun that wāra the best wil bē adopted.”

Mr. Longley has led daun a valüabl prinçipl, hwich ma bë ov grat asistanç in framing a sistem ov Fonetic Speling. Thè prinçipl iz repeted in variing turma, several tîma, shoing that Mr. L. wisht tu emfasiz it ströngli:

On pag 34 ov thè Educator for Jün and Julij ov last yèr, Mr. Longley sez:

"Dhat alfabet wil win public favor most redili hua orthografi most nêrli rezembles thè ordineri speling ov thè Engglish langwag. It is onli bi conforming tu thè American and Engglish üs ov our alfabet that eni reform in our speling can win favor with thè pèpl. It is onli in this wa that thè transishun tu thè nü orthografi can be ezi tu thè pèpl."

Aplijng this prinçipl so az tu mak thè best üs ov thè prezent leterz in a fonetic sens, we dedüç thè foloing rul, simpl, inteligibl, hwich covera everithing:

Let ech ov thè forti saunda in thè langwag bë consistentli represented bi that leter or digraf bi hwich it is represented ofnest in thè comun speling.

[The foloing iz printed acording tu Mr. Jones' aplicashun ov his "rool."]

The aplicaishon ov this rool iz simply a mater ov calculaishon, and it wil be found on aulmost eny printed paj that out ov the *meny* simbolz by which *eny* given sound iz represented, sum *wun* simbol haz by far the numerical preponderans. Thus the hard gutural iz represented by *c, k, q, x*, but it wil be found that *c* ocurz for this sound ten tiemz az ofen az the uther three simbolz put tugether in aulmost eny pasej. For the difthong "i," vairius simbolz ar uezd, az in *nigh, sign, aisle, height, eye, guide, buy, rye, lies*. Heer, again, the numerical preponderans by far iz in faivor ov *ie*. This prinsipel ov the numerical recurens ov *wun* particular simbol for eech sound, too much overlookt, may proov the kee tu the solushun ov sum ov the difficultiz ov the problem.

Mr. Pitman now sayz:

"For meny yeez I did not myself think it adviezabel tu riet fonetically with old leterz; but the lojic ov facts, the laps ov tiem, and ecstended intercoers with meny miendz, hav led me tu chainj my opinion. That ther iz a wiedspred dezier tu see whot can be dun with the old alfabet iz evident from a hundred diferent indicatorz."

Everything then points tu the concluzhon that a Fonetic Sistem ov speling in which the prezent leterz only ar uezd iz a practical nesesity, tu be advocaited sied by sied with a compleeted alfabet tu which it iz tu leed up. We must not be in too grait a hurry tu setel every detail tu the satisfacshon ov everybody aul at wuns; it wil taik sum tiem tu adjust the claimz ov filolojists, printerz, teecherz, and the grait public outsied. America ecspects sumthing from England, and it iz tu be hoept she may not be disapointed; and England ecspects much from America, and the dezier ov every Speling Reformer in England iz that the gathering at Filadelfia, in 1879, may giv a new impetus tu the moovment we hav aul so much at hart.

DISCUSHUN.

Prof. Haldeman sed that Mr. Jones's plan mjt bē ov sum ūs in perswading thē ignorant, but it did not amāunt tu much as a reform. Hie grand rul giva thē sam leter fōr meni diferent saunda. Thē leter most frēcwentli ūed fōr thē saund ov *a* in *father* is *a*; that ūed fōr *a* in *fat* is thē sam *a*; and fōr *a* in *fate* thē sam *a*; thē *u* in *music* is ofenest represented bj *u*, so is that in *but*. Mr. Jones, in fact, ūæz an invurted m fōr *u* in *full*. Did hia rul giv him that? Hē ūæz *ue* fōr *u* in *music*. That suggests thē fact that a givn saund is regulārli represented bj wun leter or set ov letera hwen it is in thē final silabl, and bj another set in thē preçeding silabl. Thē onli plaç hwēr yu find *ue* is in thē final silabl. Hwen Mr. Jones ūæz it in thē furst part ov wurdz, hē maks thē wurdz luk as un-Inglish as hē posibli can. It is thē sam wa with hia *oe* fōr *o* in *potatloe*, i. e., potato, and hia *ie* fōr *i* in *dieoesces*, i. e., dioçes; tha belong in final silabla. A proper fonetic alfabet fōr Inglish is not tu bē mad bj counting up letera. It is a serius and difficult sjentific problem, and shud bē left tu thē sjentific stūdents ov fonolōgi.

We shud remember that thē hōl wurd is rapidli cuming witiin aur rang; nama ov fōren plaçez and pursuna, artiola, matēriala, objects, ar cuming intu aur langwæg bj thē thousand. We must hav a speling that wil not disfigūr and dīsgia ol thēz. Thē chief difficulti is with thē saunda ov long *e*, *i*, and *u*. Meni Engllishmen ūad tu rēspel thē wurdz in hwich thēz ocūr, and wē had Zulu, Zooloo; Fiji, Feejee, sīd bj sīd; but Zulu and Fiji hav carid thē dē. Thē Engllish Government has adepted thē cōmopolitan form ov speling fōren nama and objects in its dependēcie, and thē amended speling must du likwīz. We must spel so as tu bē understud bj Germana and Frenchmen and uthēr pēpl. And wē must hav a standard, not haf-a-duzn saunda fōr a leter. Thē Ohio tēchēz, it is sed, spel "erysipelas" in thurti wæz.

Hon. W. D. Henkle, ov Ohio.—"Mor than that."

Rev. H. L. Wayland, D. D., ov Thē National Baptist, Philadelphia, ferd wē shud hav tu wat tu long, if wē insist on having an alfabet hwich Germana and Zulus wil açept.

Prof. Haldeman.—"Duz not thē gentlman no that thē Zulus ar British subjects?"

Dr. Wayland.—"I belēv that is a cweschun nau in dispūt. I hav hurd that rather pointēd vūs hav bin advançt on thē subject."

In conclūzhun, Dr. Wayland sed that thē reform, tu bē succēsful, must bē mad graduāli. Hē thot a grat dēl ov hie prospectiv grand-children, but felt that thē blesinga ov thē reform shud not bē kept bac fōr them.

Preaident W. Colegrove, ov West Virginia Coleg, sed that wun ov thē principl rēazn hwī fonetic speling has not bin mor redīl reçevd is thē ūrging ov impurfect and unsjentific alfabets. It is a grat mistak tu supōz that alfabets ar tu succēd hwich ar left ful ov contradicshuna and absurditia.

Mr. C. W. Knudson, ov South Nerwalk, Conn., enforçt thē thot that speling acōrding tu Engllish analogia produçes grat confūzhun,

espeshali in fōren proper nama. Hē haa gatherd from hie cōres-pondenç a list ev sixti diferent spelinga ev hie ðn nam.

Dr. Walk, Secreteri *pro tem.*, sed that thē difficulti ev introduçing a üniform and consistent methud ev speling wōe perhaps over-estimated, espeshali in sientific turma. In hie ðn professhun, mediçin, a flud ev nū turma wōe poring in, pronauñt in ðl sorts ev waz. Thē embarasment wōe veri grat, and eni gud alfabet hwich wud indicat sum standard pronunshiaashun wud bē cordiali reçeved.

A paper wōe red bi S. S. Haldeman, LL. D., Profesor ev Comparativ Filologi in thē Ünivursiti ev Pennsylvania.

THE ETYMOLOGIC OBJECSHUN TU SPELING REFORM.

Impruvment in Edücaashun, both aa regarda mater and methud, ia slo, and in our da ther ar localitia hwer tēchera belēv that thē furst step in tēching a child tu red ia tu put him tu thē chērles task ev lurning thē form and nama ev thē alfabetic lētera, overluking thē man point—thar pauera and consecwent fupçshun. Next, insted ev proçeding tu red, thē child must unlurn part ev hie alfabet in pasing thru thē diamal swomp ev speling, hwer, after having acwird thē nama ev *dzhee* (g) and *eye* (i), hē must sa dzhee-eye-dzhee, “gig”; dzhay-ay-dzhee, “jag”; j-u-d-g-e, “judge”; and hē ia evn recwird tu spel a wurd hwich enda in f, with r-o-u-g-h; and thus ia thē strēm ev edücaashun corupted at its sorç.

In mī adres ev 1876 * I alüded tu thōa hū expres thar anzjeti lest thē speling ev Shakspeare and Milton shud bē disfigürd, hwen I sed —“It ia probabl that thēa trencher frenda never sō a cōpi ev ēther,” and in general, thē objecshuna tu a reform ev Inglish † speling cuma from thē clas üeing such fütilitia.

On thē ocazhun ev a lectür tu tēchera on thē subject ev etimologi, I wōe askt: “Hau ia it posibl for a speling reformer tu discus etimologi?” Mī replj wōe tu thē efect that—Langwag ia older than speling, and a succesful studi ev etimologi must bē bast upōn thē Lōa ev Spēch.

Tu sa that an olterd speling wud interfer with thē studi ev etimologi, ia vurtüali tu asurt that Dr. Johnson, in thē last çentüri, wōe thē gratest ev Inglish etimologists, beçea thē speling wōe setld chiefly bi him. Yet hē wōe aa litl ev an etimologist aa thōa ar hū üe this argument.

Thē grat eßeritiz in etimologi hav bin fonetishana hū went at wunç tu thē lōa ev spēch, aa thar wurks indicat; and in this feld Johnson haa bin superseded bi Webster, Mohn, Lafham, and uthera; and rēçentli Skëat haa ishud thē furst part ev hie “Etimological Dicshuneri ev thē Inglish Langwag”—tu bē modifid and extended bi fütür obaurvera.

Thē da after thē præçeding sentenç wōe ritn, Thē London Academy cam tu hand with a notiç ev Prof. Skëat's grat undertaking,

* Buletin ev the Speling Reform Asoshiashun, No. 1, Boston, 1877.

† Desended from (old) English, and this from English or Anglo-Saxon. Compare this vowel closure with Latin clarus, German klar, French clair, English clear.

bj Mr. Sweet, hu objects tu "awe" being refurd tu Anglo-Saxon "oga" as being "against all laws of sound-change." He sez it is from Scandinavian "agi," "first pointed out by Prof. Zupitza"—but tha ar asociated bj Diefenbach. Prof. Skeat is chargd with "ignoring the vowel laws when he sees two words temptingly alike. Thus he connects *bless* and *bliss*, *bird* and *brood*, without any hint of the phonetic difficulties." But "rightly rejecting the absurd identifications" ov "bad" with German "bose" and Persian "bad," the wurk is hili praed; and Mr. Sweet sez ov the subject, that "Etymology is not a pursuit to be taken up by dabblers and dilletanti, as many still assume, but is really the sum of the results of every branch of philological science."

Amung the febl atemts at etimologi, that ov Dr. Richardson is preminent. Yet Dr. Trench thinks him a valuabl othoriti, and no wunder, becæ the eminent prelat standa in the furst rank ov the epoera ov rashunal spelling. In the yer 1851 he publisht a wurk "On the Study of Words," hwich shoos that he is mor ov a lüs toker than an etimologist, mor fermidabl in asurshun than in sjenç. Webster's Dicshneri in tu quarto veluma wæs publisht in 1828, republisht in London in 1832, yet Dr. Trench neglected it, and sed ov Richardson's, that "it is the only one from which I can promise you effectual help, for it is the only English one in which etymology assumes the dignity of a science"—as under FIVE, for hwich he çits old Wachter, hu (thru Greek πεντε) refura it tu απτα all—"because *five* fingers are *all*." And Trench himself, foloing Tooke, refura "odd" to "owed."

Trench's lusnes ov statment apæra in the asurshun that "no one now believes in astrology," yet astrolegic elmanacs ar extensivli sold from yer to yer. He credits Horace with having sed mor and wizer things about wurdæ than ever hav bin sed elshwer. In his introductori lectür he deprçiat the langwagea ov savagea bj asuring thar "brutal poverty," "their degradation and debasement"—and in saing—"Fearful indeed is the impress of degradation which is stamped on the language of the savage"—such langwagea being (he sez in *everi* cas) "the remnant and ruin [?] of a better and nobler past."

Dobrizhoffer (1784) is çited for tu South American langwagea as having no wurd for "thanks," tho the nativæ in return for a gift wud sa, "This will be useful to me," or, "This is what I wanted." But shal we deprçiat the Inglish becæ tha refur wurdæ lik honor, honesti, virtù, püriti, justic, politnes, siviliti, tu a foren sorç, hwil steling, theft, murder, or nativ?

But let us tak a luk at sum ov thea disparaçd tunga. Ther ar ecwivalents for "thank" in the widli speld Tupi (toopee) ov Brazil in Aztec, Cree, Ojibway, Lummi (Western America), Yoruba (African). Dakota (or Sioux) haa wurdæ for thank, thanks, thankful, thankfuli, thankles; wer it not so, Sitting Bull and Man-afred-ov-hia-horsea cud not expres thar gratitüd for being drivn from thar homa bj pepl hu, tho tha hav not a "brutal poverty" (but rather a brutal richnes) ov spech, mjt admir the Dakota verb hwich, as givn bj Rigga, from a root KSA (brak of, separæt), forma baksa (tu cut

of with ð nif er sð); paksa (tu brak of bĭ pushing); yaksa (tu bĭt of) —and uthera.

In "English Past and Present" (1855) thè ǫthor spĕks ǫv thè nū letera recwĭrd tu print Inglish foneticali, æz "a vast number," a fraz hwĭch mĭt bĕ expected in thè furst esa ǫv a scūlgurl hu had not sĕn a performanç ǫv thè Pinafore Opera, hwĭch so efectūali ridicūlæ thè vĭç ǫv exaggerashun. Farther, hĕ asurts that thè "greatest of all absurdities" is a pronauŋçing dicshuneri. Yet, hwet efnologists cōl thè *couvade* * mĭt bĕ supoad grater—or thè referenç ǫv ðl lag-gwæjæz tu Hĕbru—or making Jewz and Welshmen out ǫv thè American aboriginæ—or solushun ǫv thè cwōdratūr ǫv thè çurcl—but in thè opinyun ǫv ǫur trenchant critic, thĕa ar les absurd than pronauŋçing dicshuneriæ.

But hau ar wĕ tu trĕt buk-wurda that wĕ hav never hurd? Aa a bei ĩ wĕz fend ǫv bĭologi. ĩ nū hōks (hawks), but thè nam "falcon" (fōcn) wōz not in ūs in mĭ localiti. Hwen ĩ found it in rĕding, ĩ pronauŋct it fal-con, with "al" ǫv "rali"; and ĩ supoad thĕr wōz a wurd raleri (raillery) insted ǫv raleri (thè noun ǫv rali); but æz ĩ nū "either" and "neither" æz spĕch wurda, ĩ never got so far astræ æz tu rĕd thĕm eye-thĕr and nĭgh-thĕr; and probabli a lō ǫv Inglish spĕch ǫv hwĭch ĩ wōz unconshus prevented mĕ frōm puting thè incompatiblæ *gdz/h* together in "su'gest."

Trench sĕa that in speling "analyze" "the tap-root of the word is cut." Hĕ asks: "What number of readers will recognize in it then the image of dissolving and resolving aught into its elements?" ðl ǫv hwĭch wud hav bin acoṃplisht with "analyse," thè idĕa and pauer ǫv hwĭch du nōt lĭ in ĕthĕr speling. But if hĕ is such a sticler fōr *y* in "ana-ly-se," hau wud hĕ get rid ǫv *u* in "so-lu-tion," ǫv *v* in "se-lv," and *oo* in "loo-s-en"? —ðl frōm thè rūt ǫv "ana-ly-se." And hau distingwĭsh LU ǫv "solution" frōm LU ǫv "diluvial," hwĭch Curtius and Pott mak diferent? and hau sho thè afiniti ǫv lustration, lotion, dilute, lave, lavender?

Thè rūt ǫv ana-ly-se is Sanscrit LU (= loo, *cut*, hēnç separat); that ǫv "lave" is Latin LU (wash), and Pott devots sixtĕn pæges (frōm p. 1294 tu 1310 ǫv hĭs furst vōlūm) tu thĕa tū stemæ. Thè Latin and thè generic nam ǫv thè "ōtter" is LUTRA, æz if thè *washer* or *swimer*, but thè Latin ǫthor, Varro, sĕa it wōz namd frōm cuting rūts, hwĭch wud giv it thè uthĕr rūt. Varro probabli cōnfounded thè carnivorus ǫtĕr with thè plant-ĕting bĕvĕr, æz Dr. Johnson dĕfĭnd "weasel" æz "A small animal that eats corn and kills mice." In Anglo-Saxon "elpend" ment elephant, and "olfend" ment camel.

If "analyse" æs an Inglish wurd recwĭra *y*, so duæ "papyr" (Holland, 1635), frōm PAPYRUS; but without such kĕ, "parasite" is æz much Grĕek æz "sycophant." Posibli thè *y* in "sylvan" (Latin silvanus), and *g* in "sovereign" (Latin supernus), and in "pregnable" (French prenable), ma bĕ atribūted tu sum tap-rūt thĕori. Inglish hæz pāra lĭk bath bath, haf hāv, excūs excūs, purpos propoæ, cheiç chūæ, hwĕr a sonant marks vurba, hwĭch accaunts fōr thè z-sound in "analyse."

* In hwĭch, hwen a child iz born, the father iz put tu bed and cared for, hwile the mother atends tu hĕr usual duties.

Hwīl Dr. Trench clings tu his y'e with so litl wiadum, hē mislēda his rēdera in çiting a pār ev wūrda, as "spirit" and "spright," hwer 'sprite' is a short form ev 'spirit.'

It wēa olwās rēng and agenst etimologi tu rīt thē short fīnal ev wūrda lik 'histori' with 'y'; and it wēa rēng tu ūe it as a consonant. In fact, 'y' represents several distinct letēra; furst and properli, its Grēek, Anglo-Saxon, and Danish paucr ev German 'ü,' French 'u,' a saund stil ūed in Scotch: secundli, as diphthongal in 'by' (Dutch bij, Vandijk or Vandyck), hwer it standē for 'ij': thurdli, for thē consonant in 'ye,' hwer it grū out ev wun ev thē ritn formē ev 'g.' In old English it is a substitūt for an Anglo-Saxon leter for *th*, so that thē definit articl spelt 'ye' is tu bē red *the*.

Ignorans ev thē European alfabet apēra in our modē ev rēding South African wūrda cōnected with thē Zulu (= Zooloo) wēr. Kraal (= Krāl) is absurdlī givn bī sum orthoepists as 'Kra-al,' in tu silabla. In thē nam ev thē nativ javlin, 'assagai,' thē Dutch pronouns ēch s pūrli and distinctli (thē wurd bēing Arabic—thē furst silabl thē articl), thē 'g' as in Dutch, aprōximating thē Arabic *ghain* ev thē original; and thē accented fīnal 'ai' as in 'aisle.' In English, thē last silabl wud becum *gui* as in 'guile.' So thē nam ev a South American aligator, thē 'cayman,' wēa intended tu bē pronauunst with *ki* ev 'kind.' Thē *gh* ev thē original ev assagai ecura as thē inishal ev 'razzia' (an incursion), properli ghōzia (with a singl English z). Thē spelīng 'razzia,' and pronunsiashun 'rāt-si-a,' implī Italian, but thē wurd is Arabic, thē inishal 'r' bēing du tu a French ratling, provinshal gutural, hwich replacēa tru 'r.'

Oltho sum pretend that spelīng shud bē etimologic, it must not cros çurten sensles rula. Etimologi recwīra fīnal i in bludi (blodig); histori (histora); sturdi (estourdi); tardi (tardif); but a kind ev superstitiashun fērbidē fīnal 'i,' and it is introduct clandestinli bī taking its dubl form 'ij' and smugling it in as 'y,' and so 'felly' (folie) had beter luc than thē brut with a līon'a peltri, and sēma tu hav thē Grēek ending ev 'mōly' (a kind ev plant) hwer it is etimologic.

Thē letēra fērbidn tu bē fīnal wur—c, i, j, q, u, v—and thēa wur also fērbidn tu bē dubld; hēss formē lik back; due; imbrue; pique; etc., apērd. It sēmd impesibl tu hav a wurd slāv, becōz thē pedants recwīrd a fīnal 'e,' hwen thē wurd must bē pronauunst *slave*. But in a fū casēa cōmun sens haa prevald, and wē fīnd namē lik Boulaq; Sutlej; slav; haj or hajj; but navigators ar denjēd thē 'vv' acçordēd tu navvia.

Nashuna without 'k' ūē 'q' instēd, but it dār not bē disoçiat from 'u,' and in borod wūrda wē thīnk wē must giv līf tu thī parasit, thī pretended 'u,' and rēd kēnēn' as quī'nīn, oltho wē sa muskēto.

Instēd ev adīng, English spelīng ofn fhwerts thē etimologist, as in blacbord exērcīzēa, hwer a ūsles 'e' interfēra with thē relashun ev 'tru-th' tu 'tru,' lo Saxon 'tru.'

I hav nau tu cōl atēnshun tu thē fact that thē opozēra ev rashunal spelīng ar ūzhuali anti-rēformēra in Latin pronunsiashun, thus dēmonstrating thē wurthlesnes ev thar opinyuna ēn etimologi. Nau, so impertant du I regard cōrēct Latin, that (as I hav sēd in thē "National Journal ev Education," March 20, 1879),—"Altho in

my Outlines of Etymology, 1878, the principles are drawn from English, yet I have deemed it necessary to add the Latin alphabet in an appendix, as without it I can not conceive of an honest etymologist, either (either) of English or of Latin."

I will now go farther, and say that the instructor here pretends to teach English etymology with the aid of a spurious English Latin, is guilty of a breach of trust; because, for example, if a *k*-sound is not present in the second syllable of Latin 'cancer,' then English 'canker' and Italian 'canchero' (ch as *k*), are without etymology. If Latin *ne* (not) is to be called *knee* (instead of *nay*), then it is a newer word than English 'nay.' And if Anglo-Saxon *na* (no) is not to have the Latin vowel of 'arm' it is equivalent to 'nay,' and 'no' would be from 'nay,' which is not the fact, nor is 'nay' from 'no.' If we put the vowel of *clay* in Latin *clarus* (*clear*) we are no nearer the source than French 'clair,' to which German 'klar' would virtually be referred, and although this would enable us to associate 'glare' (or glair) with French 'clair,' there would be a difficulty in accounting for 'glo' and 'glori.'

Adjourned, to meet at half-past 1 o'clock.

Wednesday, July 30.

The Association met at half-past 1 o'clock. The President in the chair. The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved. On motion the following members were appointed a Committee to nominate officers for the next year: Rev. C. K. Nelson, D. D., of St. John's College, Md., Prof. E. H. Barlow, of Lafayette College, Pa., Hon. W. D. Henkle, of Salem, Ohio.

A paper was read by Prof. Barlow, from Mr. S. N. D. North, of the Utica Morning Herald, on

SPELLING REFORM IN JOURNALISM.

* [Mr. North's address is spelled, by his request, according to the Five New Rules.]

If language, as the satirist says, was given man to conceal his thoughts, the English spelling must have been invented to prevent any thinking at all. But if, as we believe, language has a higher purpose—and that the highest purpose conceivable in a human invention—spelling shares that purpose, for it is the vehicle by which language is able to transmit and preserve human thought. Spelling can no more be fettered than the language it embodies, or the mind that speaks through the language. Changes both of language and spelling are as inevitable as the development of the human race to which they bear witness. They are dependent upon circumstances; but they will never cease until humanity ceases to move forward or backward. The development of language is beyond the reach of human law; but its spelling is a machinery with adjustable parts,

1.—Omit *a* from the digraph *ea* when pronounced as *e* short, as in *head*, *health*, etc.
 2.—Omit silent *e* after a short vowel, as in *have*, *give*, *live*, *define*, *infinite*, *forbid*, etc.
 3.—Write *f* for *ph* in such words as *alphabet*, *fantom*, *comfort*, *philosophy*, *telegraph*, etc.
 4.—When a word ends with a double letter, omit the last, as in *shall*, *will*, *cliff*, *egg*, etc.
 5.—Change *ed* final to *t* when it has the sound of *t*, as in *last*, *impress*, *fixt*, etc.

wholly within the control both of law and reason. This Association seeks to govern these changes in spelling; to direct and accelerate them by the application of scientific method to the evolution which neither prejudice, nor habit, nor a fixt literature can permanently retard.

I do not make my appearance before such an Association to rehearse arguments alrely known and accepted here, in favor of the reform of English orthograpy, nor to join the discussion of disputed questions regarding what may be termed the *technique* of the reform. These questions may safely be left to those who make the science of language the study of their lives. There is another question, quite as important, which involves the ways and means of incorporating this reform into the current orthograpy of the English writing world. As a practical busines man, interested in the spelling reform chiefly because it offers a vast improvement in the busines relations of the hundred million of people dependent upon English for inter-communication, I shal offer some suggestions upon this branch of the subject, in its relations to the Journalism of the United States.

There is now but one serious impediment in the way of the rapid introduction of a reformed English spelling. The general acceptance, among those whose opinion carries weight, of the abstract principles of the Spelling Reform Association, affords every encouragement to zealous perseverance. But in spite of it, the spelling reform drags. The difficulty, like that which confronts the would-be swimmer, is to take the first plunge. No man likes to spel fonetically, while all his neighbors are spelling with a dictionary at their elbow. No publisher cares to dres his books in reformed spelling, when his readers are stil wedded to the deformed spelling. The spelling association may issu its bulletins; the professors may recommend; the filologists may demonstrate the absurdity of this voluntary slavery; but stil it continues. Where shal a beginning be made? It is left for American Journalism to make it.

This Association must frankly admit the popular indifference, among the mas of English-speaking peopl everywhere, to the proposed changes in spelling. The *vis inertia* is a powerful enemy. It becomes more powerful when, as in this case, the reform in whose light it stands, is not vehemently opposed in any quarter. Every great movement feeds upon opposition; every movement ceases to be great when it is received with indifference. This popular lethargy towards the spelling reform is due not only to the natural prejudice with which most peopl receive every proposition, however sensibl, to change fixt habits, but to a vague sense of the magnitude and difficulty of the task, behind which all the unreasoning prejudice runs for refuge. We are appealing, not to the unborn children, nor to the several suffering millions now in the schools, but to grown men and women who hav learned to spel—or rather, who think they hav learned to spel. Habit rules their world; and it is easier to overcome an army with banners. The pres is the most direct, the most far-reaching, the most powerful weapon with which you can attack it.

This passiv hostility to the spelling reform is made almost activ by a popular impression that the reform wil compel every one to learn a new alfabet, and commit to memory a new spelling of a hundred thousand English words. Such a feeling can not wel be coerced. It must be coact. It must be admitted that the members of the spelling reform association are in part responsibl for this impression and its consequences. The wheels of your progres wil hardly be unlockt until it is removed. I shal hope to justify these two assertions by indicating the relations of the reform to journalism.

The journalist is a man whose implements of daily labor are these English words, against whose whimsical and oppressiv spelling this Association utters anathema. As a practical man, the journalist ought to recognize the fact that he wil profit by an improvement and simplification in his tools in the same way that others profit by the wonderful things science and invention hav done for the tools of every laborer save only him who works with written and printed words. Notwithstanding the marvelous evolution in journalism effected by the fast printing pres and the telegrafic transmission of news, the journalist is stil at work with implements contemporaneous with the vellum and the stylus which Guttenberg's types made obsolete.

Language and journalism hav a history in large part common to both. Both are growths, expanding and changing, absorbing and rejecting, in obedience to laws which govern the world's progres. The journalist has seen his profession develop in two centuries from a despised and illicit pursuit into the fourth estate of the relm. Younger than the English language, journalism has caught up with it and passt it, as a system regulated and controlled by scientific principles. Our printing presses are two hundred years in advance of our spelling. Printed language is subject to the same arbitrary, accidental, contradictory and absurd rules which governed its orthograpy when England maintained and justified the censorship of the pres; when Prynne was sentenced to a fine, the pillory, the loss of his ears and imprisonment for life, because he dared to print in defiance of the licenser; when the liberty of the pres was a Utopia of political dreamers.

But journalism, which has conquered its way thru the royal licenser, thru the parliamentary prohibition, thru the common law maxim—"the greater the truth the greater the libel," to a freedom which is itself the most eloquent witnes of the advance of civilization—journalism stil rests under an intellectual bondage as slavish and exacting as that legal duress from which it has escaped. The time has truly come when it ought to insist upon emancipation from the English orthograpy of the illiterate printers of the sixteenth century.

In any calculation of the probabilities of the introduction of a reformed English spelling, the newspaper pres must be regarded as a chief agency. While it remains hostil or indifferent—which is the most effectiv hostility—the spelling reform can never take firm hold either upon the book-makers or the school teachers. The latter

especially are handicapped by precedent, in bondage to long-printed text-books, and at the mercy of the popular prejudice or indifference. Not so the pres. It may dictate the spelling of the continent, if it wil.

The increase in the number and circulation of American newspapers is the unparalleled phenomenon in the literary history of the world. Our population has doubled once every twenty-five years—but the total annual circulation of American newspapers has doubled once in every nine years—or nearly three times as fast as our population. In 1775, thirty-seven newspapers, of which none were daily, printed 1,200,000 copies annually. In 1870, 5,871 papers, of which one sixteenth were daily, printed 1,508,548,230 copies, of which nearly one-third were daily. In a single year the newspaper pres of the United States sends out a larger number of printed pages than are contained in all the libraries of America. Each page is red by from one to five citizens. Their reading is a recognized part of the daily busines of our social, political and commercial life. A century ago, books were red as almost exclusively; to-day the larger proportion of the newspaper constituency rarely looks into a book.

It is not possibl to over-estimate the influence, direct and indirect, which this endles multiplication and circulation of printed pages exerts upon the community, penetrating to all classes day after day, morning and evening, week by week, ceaselessly, perpetually. The indirect influence of the pres, thru this constant occupancy of the public eye, is vastly greater than its direct effect upon the thought and opinion of the world. This indirect influence is largely exerted upon the world's current vernacular. Most of the changes in orthograpy during the last century hav come about thru the pres. If the pres had not adopted Webster's improvements in the spelling of a limited number of words, they must hav died a-borning. Marshal the army of words of doubtful origin and uncertain respectability the pres has forced into the dictionaries, by its persistent use of them! It seizes the coinages of busines, of politics, of the street, and givs them local habitation, until the prim and prudish dictionary makers are compelled to stamp them as genuin English words. Thus the pres "bulldozes" the language of the day—to make use of one of the instances of its tyranny. Recalling what the pres has alredy done for the English language in this respect—whether wisely or unwisely, this is not the time to inquire—it is safe to assert that the spelling reform is a work within the compas of its powers, and that it is the natural agency, because of its wonderfully intimate and reflex relations to the people, thru which that work must be accomplisht. When a united pres has adopted the reformed orthograpy, the problem is solved; for it wil drive the rest of the world into it in self-defense, if not for self-advantage.

But this is an achievement of a long time and gradual accomplishment, even after the spirit and the purpose are secured. The genuin spelling reformer ought to stand redy to adopt at once every modification of alfabet and orthograpy essential to an absolutely fonetic spelling. But this is obviously impossibl in journalism, even if it is practicabl between the individual members of this

Association. A reformed alfabet can not be thrust at once into the newspaper pres, because the patrons of the pres can not read it. We might as wel make use of the hyeroglyphics of an Egyptian obelisk. For the pres must discharge the doubl duty of educating its readers to the reform, while it is accomplishing the reform itself. A journal which should suddenly cast off its old familiar dres, and don an alfabet in which there was a character for every sound and only one sound for every character, could not retain its constituency long enough to reconcile it to the reformation. The difficulties in the pathway of a universal introduction, even of the simpler modifications of the alfabet proposed, are almost insurmountabl. The necessity for complete new fonts of type is obstacl enough to prevent unity of action in that direction.

The pres of the United States has a fixt habit of moving but a trifle faster than the community which sustains it. Its influence as an educating power is doubtles broadened by this habit. Recognizing the fact, why should not the spelling reform seize upon that trifle, and be thankful for it, in expectation of better things to come? If the pres is to be made the champion of the reform, it must be permitted to approach it by sections, as the five rules approved by the Fillogical Association propose. Let this Association devote its energies to the triumph of these five simpl, practicabl methods of reform in spelling, and then move onward to another and yet another five rules. Thus hav all reforms reacht their fruition. Thus are fixt habits conquered. Thus may the most stalwart prejudices be roasted to death over a slow fire. Thus, and in no other way, is it possibl to secure the powerful alliance of the newspaper pres.

There is no sound reason why every journal in the land should not at once adopt the five rules and resolutely carry them into the newspaper and the job office. Within a month from the change, every constituency will be habituated to the improvement, and, what is better, conscious that it is an improvement. The adoption of these five rules will be the logical extension and systematization of a habit which has long been growing upon the pres. Every tendency in journalism is towards a simpler typogرافy. It has abolished the indiscriminate use of the capital letters. One of Horace Greeley's familiar sentences, deformed and bedizened with a frontispiece on every noun, is now a typogرافical curiosity. There is a far les wasteful use of punctuation marks than custom formerly dictated. Italics are banished from the pres in the same way, and for the same reason—because editors are beginning to realize that the force of language lies not in its appearance to the eye but in its meaning to the mind. The reasoning is equally good in its application to spelling. It is not the appearance of the word, not the number of letters employed in its spelling, nor the ingenuity exercised in torturing them into the collocation least suggestiv of the pronunciation, which conveys its meaning to the reader any more than to the listener. The silent letters are nothing but the relics of modes of utterance which formerly prevailed. Omitted and elided sounds hav disappeared, leaving behind them these gravestones for us to stumbl over. Hundreds of these silent letters hav dis-

appeared in turn. The hundreds remaining will follow them some time. The eternal friction of language catches a new one every now and then. Why should they not all go at once, or in battalions?

It is years since many of us first dropt the superfluous "me" off "*programme*," and the only objection I ever heard raised was advanced by a certain college president, when urged to use the briefer form upon the commencement scheme—he was afraid the people would think the faculty did not know how to spell! Already many of us are long used to dropping the final "te" from the entire group of words like *cigarette*, *quarlette*, *etiquette*; and the words have gained a manly, straightforward appearance from the elision. But why do we stop here? Both press and community are committed to the principle of these improvements because both have followed the example of the brave Noah Webster, in kicking a lot of these orthographic tramps out of doors. Why do we hesitate, then, to press on, as fast as we may, to the legitimate conclusion? I shall refuse to believe that the courage of the American journalist is not equal to the test which loyalty to the spelling reform applies.

There is nothing in the five rules more radical, more orthographically *outré* than are the changes alluded to above. Why do we continue to carry that ugly "*ugh*," like an old man of the sea, upon the backs of our *thorough*s, *through*s and *borough*s? Long ago the people of my county sanctioned its "taking off," when they permitted the descendants of the founders of the first village planted on the headwaters of the Mohawk River to shorten up their "Whitesborough," so that the village letter-writer might have time to reach the mail before it closed. Who will mis the "ue" that the spelling reform association begs the newspapers to drop from the rear of *catalogue* and *demagogue*, where the pair have been silently catching a stolen ride for all these generations? Why should not the press be as fierce to kick this intruding letter *k* out of the alphabet as it is to drive a thief out of public office? Why must we use a *p* and an *k*, when a single *f* is better than both? Why should we longer flatter our consonants by the inevitable doublet at every possible opportunity? All the world stops when it is thru—except the printer. With him, as with the witches, it is an endless "double, double, toil and trouble."

Of the several phases of the practical aspect of this question as applied to journalism, the saving of time, labor and money is of the first importance. I once had the awful temerity to print a column of matter after the manner of the five rules, just to show how easy and delightful it was. A subsequent calculation based upon that column showed a saving of not quite one letter to a line, in a column of 248 lines. If the whole paper had been spelled in the same economical fashion, the saving would have been 7,500 letters per day—more than two million letters a year, or about one-thirty-sixth of the total number of letters used and re-used in the composition of the three hundred and thirteen issues. These figures become more impressive, when applied to the large quarto editions of the metropolitan press. They become still more impres-

siv, when by an extension of the same calculation, we find that the 600 daily papers in the United States are setting up and re-distributing, over and over again, one billion, five hundred and fifty million of the superfluous letters which would disappear unmissed and unmourned from our spelling, by the adoption of the five rules. The weekly and monthly press, numbering 5,300, are setting up the same number of superfluous letters. If the opponent of the spelling reform will stop long enough to count one billion, he may consent to believe before his task is finished, that it is worth while to save the vital energy, the precious time, the costly labor thus wasted in blind homage to the frailties of our mother tongue. To put this question in another form, this calculation shows that enough of these superfluous letters are used by those who neglect the five rules, to fill five issues a year of the journal with which I am connected.

Mr. Jones, of London, has carried the calculation still farther. Appealing for the adoption of a fonetic spelling throughout, he shows the gain from the total omission of silent letters to be seven per cent. This would give a saving of \$105,000 a year in the composition bills of the *London Daily News*, and a saving of \$210,000 in the composition of the *London Times*. This is an enormous waste—a self-imposed tax upon knowledge, upon literature, upon the newspaper publisher and the newspaper reader. The whole tendency of the times is toward the economic reform. It is the cry in politics; and the best work of science is devoted to the utilization of waste materials and refuse. The press is forever prating about governmental economy, and forever tolerating within itself the most uneconomical feature of our nineteenth century life.

The printer is the best speller in the world. It is his business to know how to put the right letter in the right place; and yet there are no printers who are infallible spellers. They are addicted to the dictionary, tormented by the variegated spelling of hurried editors, pursued by the argus-eyed proof-reader. No occupation is so endlessly made up of detail. One by one, each of the myriad letters which make the current literature of the day is picked up, adjusted, and again distributed, with an average of six different movements to each letter. There are fifty thousand printers in the United States. In their behalf, the journalists ought to combine for the ostracism of the superfluous letters. If we are ever to have a machine by which type can be successfully set and distributed, the banishment of the silent letters will become of even greater mechanical importance than now.

The press need have no fear that its constituency will rebel against the gradual introduction of the spelling reform. The cantankerous subscriber who stops his paper because this or that feature of its mechanical arrangement does not suit him, will doubtless be on hand; but he must be discounted any way. We may judge of the general effect upon readers by the remarkable popularity of Josh Billings' writings—the pioneer spelling reformer, who has broken the pathway more thoroughly than we imagine, by showing people that the nearest and easiest way to reach a given orthographic point, is

by the bee line. Insted of disguising his wit by this straight spelling, the almanac humorist makes it the more palatable and distinguishable.

It is a fact capable of demonstration that the average newspaper reader does not know how to spell. This is a grave charge to bring against the independent and intelligent American people, and in the face of a recent declaration of Richard Grant White that "but comparatively few persons do not always spell according to the dictionary." But it is proved by the letters which are written by newspaper subscribers, ordering or renewing a subscription. Any publisher will bear out the assertion that as many as every third letter of this kind is misspelled, in one or more words. Yet they are the briefest possible letters; and the words used are the most familiar and the least intricate, orthographically. I insist that no journal has a more intelligent constituency than the one with which I am connected; and yet its readers have half a dozen different methods of spelling the word "*Herald*." It is not a word that the five rules will help them with; but if such a word is a stumbling block, what vast assistance the five rules will be in numberless words now spelled in ignorance with nearer approach to the phonetic orthography than the dictionaries tolerate.

The average newspaper reader is the farmer, the business man, the well-to-do mechanic—people with the average education and average culture, employed in other than literary pursuits, and prone to forget the quixotic orthography they could never completely master in the days of their schooling. It is no fault of their own that they slip in their spelling. Let us rather look upon it as a disgrace to the English-speaking world of the nineteenth century, that it has permitted itself to reach that century without perfecting for its daily use an orthography so scientific that every word can be spelled as a column of figures is added, and the spelling verified as the addition is verified.

Here, then, is a great and open field for journalism—new to it as a mission, but suggestively akin to the achievement it already boasts in the establishment of its own right of free speech. The work is ready to its hand—ripe for journalism to reap the rewards of the agitation which you gentlemen have so unselfishly and persistently kept alive. The spelling reform needs but the single impetus which the press can give it. Its accomplishment will outrank any triumph the newspaper has yet achieved, in its positive benefits to the world. I wish that every journalist whose eye may fall upon these words could be induced to consider this work that pleads for the championship of his profession, in the light of his own ideal of what that profession ought to be and to do. In no other field can it so largely and beneficently demonstrate its power. The press of the United States is divided between hostile political clans. The energies of one half are largely wasted in fighting the other half. Its direct influence is pitifully weakened and neutralized by this perpetual jangle. Here at least is one field in which it can unite with a common purpose, to achieve a work that will win for it the lasting regard of the people who read. Why shall not journalism contribute of

its abundant might to make our glorious English language not only the most affluent and concise, but the most filosofical of written languages, crowning it with a new glory as it marches on its conquering way? Chevaliers of the pres! let us wage war against the despotism of the dictionary!

DISCUSHUN.

Vic President S. S. Haldeman in the char.

Mr. Francis Wells, editor ov the Evening Bulletin, Philadelphia, wos not redi tu accept the dütie ov the jurnalist as stated in the paper. He sugested objecshuna tu the reform.

Franklin Taylor, LL. D., hed-master ov the Philadelphia High School, Rev. Dr. H. L. Wayland, Prof. Barlow, and Mrs. E. B. Burna continüd the discushun in repli.

A paper wos presented bi Hon. W. T. Harris, Superintendent ov Public Instrucshun in St. Louis, Mo., on

THE POTENÇI OV CAPREÇ.

[We can onli giv an abstract ov hiz paper.]

Mr. Harris sed that ther ar tü eposing forces in the soshal organ-
izm, the pursonal activiti ov individüals, hwich ia tu be regarded as
a çentrifügal forc, and the soshal impuls, the feling ov solidariti,
hwich ia a çentripetal forc.

The çentrifügal forc, the capriçes ov individüals, ia espeshali
strong in the begininga ov a reform lik this. The pursonaliti ia
raud tu vigorus activiti bi revolt agenst the old establisht customa,
and goz on tu expashiat and disport itself frëli. Everi reformer ia
redi tu invent spellinga ov hia on, and tu chang them frëli acording
tu hia capriçes.

Mr. Harris thoät the Speling Reform had bin in this stag long
enuf. The reformera nau cuming together, and under the influenç
ov a comun purpos, shud begin tu fel the attractiv tendençi, the çen-
tripetal forc, the deajr for ünit. The members ov this Asoshiashun
shud be redi tu yeld ther capriçes tu the general rëan, and har-
moniz ol ther scëma. Tha wil then exerçiz a most pauerful atrac-
shun on uthers. The Filological Asoshiashun ia a nachural çenter
ov influenç. The muvment in Eggländ ia hopful in this vü. The
combinashun ov English and American oetheritia wil giv a çentral
forc ov such pauer as tu bring ol tu härmoni, and ashur the reform
an orderli progress, and, it ma be hopt, spëdi sucçes.

DISCUSHUN.

President March in the char.

Prof. A. M. Gammell, ov Providence, R. I., incwird hau far the
Asoshiashun had gen toarda limiting the frëdum ov individüals tu
spel as tha plëz. Did net the Asoshiashun hav a plan ov spelling
for ol? Hwot ar the "fiv rule" hwich ar menshünd so ofen? He

had but latli becum interested in the subject. The Providence Journal had reported the acshun ov the Filological Asoshiashtun at Newport, and givn an ilustrashun ov the speling proposd bi it, and he did not find it at al ilegibl or repulsiv. He had in fact bin attracted bi it. Woe the plan ov this Asoshiashtun the sam?

Prof. Barlow expland that the acshun ov the Asoshiashtun woe bast on that ov the filologists. It accepts the neçesiti and the dezirablnes ov having a standard speling, generali reçevd and bînding; and it haz givn the alfabet and rule for this standard speling ov the fûtür. But it recognîzees the imposibiliti ov geting everibodi tu üz it imediatli. It therfor expects a caotic period, and trije tu led the wa thru it bi advîeing several minor changee. He red the thri wurda, the elevn wurda, and the "fiv rule" (se opening paper), and directed atenshun tu the Buletine ov the Asoshiashtun, in hwich thez matere ar expland, espeshali tu the bibliografi ov Speling Reform literachur in the Buletin for April, 1878.

Hon. W. D. Henkle, Editor ov the Ohio Educational Monthly and Educational Notes and Queriez, sed: I did not hav the plezhur ov hîring the paper or papere red this afternün, having spent the tîm in the Department ov Industrial Educashun, witnessng practical manipulashune in sculptür.

I can sa, haeuver, on the general subject that I am thuroli in favor ov reform in our barbarus speling. I go in for a perfect reformashun, wun that wil end in the üs ov a pürli fonetic alfabet. As I sed last yër at the mîting ov this Asoshiashtun at the White Mountain, I can bring mißelf tu endors the mild recomedashune ov this Asoshiashtun onli on the ground ov thar adopshun being the for-runer ov general demoralizashun in speling. The consecwent anarci ma mak litereri pepl wiling tu accept a reformd alfabet. The dae ov the etimological objecshun tu the reform ar nêrli past. No respectabl scolar wud nau risk hie repütashun bi reproducing the argüments ov Dean Trench agenst the reform. Twenti-fiv yëra ago I red a paper in Çincinnati on the etimological objecshun then so generali urjd. The stat ov the public mind in referenc tu the reform is nau ewit diferent. The litereri world is awakning, and nau is the tîm tu mak efectiv asölts on our prezent orthografi. Oltho I du not belêv in al the argüments üad bi speling reformers, nor al the statments mad bi them, I hartili endors the muvment tu remuv the disgracful anomalie ov our prezent speling—a speling hwich woe not fixt, az sum asurt, bi Dr. Samuel Johnson, but bi rîterz a hundred yëra befor the publicashun ov hie famus dicshuneri, az ma be faund bi a referenc tu buks ov that tîm, hol pagez ov hwich contan fû or no variashune from the normal standard ov tu-da.

I think I se waz in hwich the reform can mak rapid advançe. It must be rememberd that the longer a sistem ov orthografi remane the sam, the mor difficult it wil be tu chang it. The sacrednes ov our prezent speling must be deströid and then the reformashun wil be üzi. Fonetic print is tu meni a monster ov friftul mien that is hated az sün az sên. But I höp that it wil be sên so oft that it wil gro familyur, then be pited, then embract. If nüapapere generali wud print a cölum with fonetic tip, and then az pepl becum mor

familyur with it print tu columa, then thrè, and so on, bi thè tim thè fonetic speling shal fil haf thè spaç thar wud bè a clamor tu let thè old speling go entirli, espeshali if children shud bè töt in thè scula thè nü speling, hwich tha can hardli fal tu lik beter than thè old.

I reçevd a fü daa ago a copi ov a paper cöld "The Vidette," publisht at Valparaíso, Ind., in hwich thè persunal colum wos printed in fonetic speling. I thöt thè selecshun ov thiz colum fer thè nü speling a hapi wun, aa everi wun wents tu red thè persunala. I höp meni uther nüpapers wil imitat The Vidette and thus hasn thè reform. It can bè acomplisht within thè next fifti yers if such a cörs az sugested bè adopted.

Further remārks wur mad bi Mr. Knudsen and Dr. F. Taylor.

Dr. Taylor eferd a rezolüshun, hwich after discushun and amendment wos past, az folow:

Rezolvd, That thè President ov this Asoshiaashun bë recwestea tu obtain from thè Nashunal Edücaashunal Asoshiaashun az ful recognishun ov thè speling reform aa pesibl in ther publicashuna.

On mooshun ov Prof. R. H. Carothers, ov thè Stat Normal Scul, Shippensburg, Pa.:

Rezolvd, That thè President bë recwestea tu hav thè Speling Reform presented tu thè Social Sjenç Asoshiaashun.

A leter wos red from Mr. N. B. Webster, ov Norfolk, Va., comünicating a rezolüshun ov thè Stat Tèchera' Asoshiaashun ov Virginia in favor ov thè reform:

Rezolvd, 1. That a comiti bë apeintea with instrucshuna tu recwest thè Virginia representative tu Cöngres tu üa ther influenç tu secür favorabl acshun on thè memorial in behaf ov Speling Reform tu bë preazentea tu that bodi, and also tu bring thè mater tu thè atenshun ov thè Virginia Legislaçhur, and secür such acshun aa ma sëm tu them adviçabl.

2. That a permanent comiti on Speling Reform, consisting ov thrè, bë apeintea.

President J. M. Garnett, ov St. John's Coleg, Maryland, reporteü acshun in favor ov thè reform bi thè Stat Tèchera' Asoshiaashun ov Maryland.

Dr. Nelson preazentea thè report ov thè Comiti tu nominat ofiçera. Thè report wos açeptea and thè ofiçera nominated wur electea as folow:

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FRANCIS A. MARCH, LL. D.

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Ex-President American Philological Association.
EASTON, PENN.

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* NOTE.—Prof. Barlow has resigned, and Mr. Dewey has consented to serve as Secretary.

A Report from Secreteri Dewey woe presented and refurd tu the Execütiv Comiti.

A Report from Treazürer Barlow woe presented, and refurd tu the Execütiv Comiti.

Mrs. E. B. Burns proposd tu establish a Tract-fund. Refurd tu the Execütiv Comiti.

An infermal mëtting ov the frenda ov the reform in the evning woe anoungt.

Reezolvd, That the thanks ov the Asoshiasun be tenderd tu the Nashunal Edücashunal Asoshiasun for ther meni curtesia, tu the Bord ov Edücashun ov the Çiti ov Philadelphia for the üs ov the Hi Scul Bilding, and tu the pres for ther reports ov the mëttinga.

Adjurnd tu mèt at the cöl ov the Execütiv Comiti.

JAS. W. WALK, *Sec. pro tem.*

[NOTE.—As editor ov these Proceedings, I wish tu asume all responsibiliti for the speling and typographical erorz. If pronounciation wer mor nearly settled, ther wud hav bin mor consistency in the former, and if I had had mor time for revision ther wud hav bin les ov the latter.—O. C. BLACKMER.]

ALFABET OV THE SPELING REFORM ASOSHIQSHUN.

Vauela.

Short.		Long.	
I	i, it.	E	ē=ī, hē, poliç.
E	e, met.	Q	a=ē, potato, thēy, fare.
A	a, at.	a	fare (in America).
Q	ā, ask (sē Dicshuneria).	ā	fār.
Θ	o, net, what.	ō	nōr, wall.
O	o, wholly (in Nū Igglānd).	o	nō, holy.
U	u, but.	ū	bōrn.
U	u, full.	u	rūle, fool, māv.

Diffhonge: I ī=ai, fīnd, faīnd. QU au, haus=house. OI oi, oil. Ū ū=yu or iu, ūnit, yunit, mūsic, miuēic.

Censonants.

Surd.		Sonant.	
P	p, pet.	B	b, bet.
T	t, top.	D	d, did.
CH	ch, church.	J	j, er g, jet, gem.
C	c, er k, q, cake, cwit (quit).	G	g, get.
F	f, fit, filosofer.	V	v, vat.
TH	th, thin, pifhy.	TH	th, Dhē, thē.
S	s, er ç, so, çent.	Z	z, er a, zone, ia.
SH	sh, shē.	ZH	zh, fūzhun.
WH	wh, which (in Igglānd).	W	w, wē.
H	h, hē	L	l, lo.
		R	r, rat.
		Y	y, yē.
		M	m, mē.
		N	n, no.
		NG	ng, er ŋ, king, iŋk.

Silabic: l, nobl, nobla; m, spaama; n, tokn, tokna.

[The foloing iz printed in the "alfabet ov the future." Onli three niu lēterz and twenti-three old ones ar needed tu represent the 32 elementeri soundz.—O. C. BLACKMER.]

An alfabet intended for yus bai a vast cōmiuniti nīd net atemt an egz-hostiv analisis ov dhī elements ov uterans, and a representēshun ov dhī naisest varaietiz ov articiulēshun; it mē wel liv rum for dhī unavoiḁabl plē ov indivijual and local pronunshiēshun.

No langwēj haz ever had, or iz laicli tu hav, a purfect alfabet; and, in chēnjing and amending dhī mod ov raiting a langwēj olredi long ritn, regard must nesereli bī had tu whet iz practicali posibl cwait az much az tu whet iz inhrentli dezairabl.

An olterd orthegrafi wil bī unavoiḁabli ofensiv tu dhōz hu ar furst cōld upen tu yuz it; but eni sensibl and consistent niu sistem wil rapidli win dhī harti preferens ov dhī mas ov raiterz.

Dhī Roman alfabet iz so waidli and furmli establish in yus among dhī līding sivilaizd nēshunz dhat it can net bī displēst; in adapting it tu impruvd yus for English, dhī efort ov scolarz shud bī directed toardz its yus widh yunifermiti and in cōnformiti widh udher nēshunz.

2

CIRCULARS OF INFORMATION

OF THE

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

No. 2-1879.

PAPERS, ADDRESSES, DISCUSSIONS, AND OTHER PROCEEDINGS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AT THE MEETING HELD AT WASHINGTON, D. C., FEBRUARY 4, 5, AND 6, 1879; THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION FOR 1877; AND THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE CONFERENCE OF THE PRESIDENTS AND OTHER DELEGATES OF THE STATE UNIVERSITIES AND STATE COLLEGES OF OHIO FOR 1877.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1879.

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LETTER

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., April 18, 1879.

SIR: You are familiar with the fact that in the dark hours of Prussian history, when Baron v. Stein was determining those principles of administration which have been so important in establishing Germany's present preëminence in Europe, he sought "to connect government with science" so that those charged with the direction of public affairs could avail themselves of the knowledge of experts in the several departments of philosophy when the public welfare would be promoted thereby.

It is always a matter of regret to see officials (whether of the city, county, State, or nation) separated from the best thought of those citizens who may be specially informed on the several topics which are included in their responsibilities. In this country the best informed have excellent opportunities for the free expression of their ideas in many voluntary associations, but too often their ideas affect legislation only after they have instructed the general public and secured its emphatic approval.

This Office, existing solely for collecting and disseminating educational information, has sought continually all possible aid from the voluntary as well as official opinions expressed by those most skilled in matters of education. More especially has it received aid from the organization known as the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association; its members live and work in all parts of the country and deal with those general topics and interests which embrace in some form all phases of education; out of their action, indeed, this Office came into existence. Year by year it has been assisted by them in selecting its plan of work and conducting its inquiries. Their proceedings, as a rule, relate to the most vital problems of educational administration. Therefore, in presenting for publication the following papers and discussions, I am so far seeking to disseminate by means of this Office the information specially desired by those who administer the affairs of our school systems.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOHN EATON,
Commissioner.

Hon. C. SCHURZ,
Secretary of the Interior.

Approved, and publication ordered.

C. SCHURZ,
Secretary.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.
DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *February 4, 1879.*

Pursuant to the call, a convention of State and city superintendents of public schools was held this morning in the lecture room of the Congregational Church, Tenth and G streets. Following is an extract from the call:

HARRISBURG, PA., *January 7, 1879.*

A special meeting of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, will be held in the lecture room of the Congregational Church, Tenth and G streets, Washington, D. C., commencing on Tuesday, February 4, at 11 A. M., and continuing several days.

* * * * *

Papers will be presented on the "Wants of the National Bureau of Education;" "Education in Switzerland;" "Education at the Paris Exposition;" "Industrial education;" the "Needs of education in the South;" "Instruction in governmental ideas;" and on "Drawing in its relation to industries."

The questions proposed for discussion are the following:

1. The census of 1880 as it relates to education.
 2. Educational qualifications for American citizenship.
 3. Wherein our public schools lack as a moral agency.
 4. Dangers that threaten our systems of public education.
- * * * * *

J. P. WICKERSHAM, *President.*

R. W. STEVENSON, *Secretary.*

The Department was called to order by President Wickersham at 11.30 A. M., and was opened with prayer by Rev. S. Domer, D. D., of St. Paul's Evangelical Lutheran Church.

The PRESIDENT. In the absence of the regular secretary, Mr. R. W. Stevenson, I will ask Mr. J. J. Burns, State superintendent of common schools of Ohio, to act as secretary for this meeting.

Mr. Burns accordingly took his seat as secretary.

The PRESIDENT called for the order of business, and Hon. J. Ormond Wilson, superintendent of schools for the District of Columbia, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the following committees be appointed by the president, namely: An executive committee, to arrange the order of exercises for this meeting, to consist of three members; a committee on invitations, three members; a committee on resolutions, three members; a committee on national legislation, five members, with power to increase their number.

The resolution being unanimously adopted, the **PRESIDENT** asked for a little time before appointing the committees, as some members of the Department had not yet arrived. He would, however, name Mr. J. Ormond Wilson chairman of the executive committee, it being necessary to have that committee organize at once in order to arrange the proceedings of the convention.

On motion of Hon. George J. Luckey, city superintendent of Pittsburgh, Pa., it was voted that the Department hold two sessions daily, and that the hours be from 9.30 A. M. to 12.30 P. M. for the morning session and from 7.30 P. M. to 9.30 P. M. for the evening session.

The **PRESIDENT** requested all persons desiring to participate in the deliberations to communicate their names and addresses to the secretary; and he included in the invitation all present connected with educational work who are not superintendents. Pending the inscribing of names of delegates, the secretary read letters regretting the inability of the writers to attend the convention from the following gentlemen: Hon. Leon Trousdale, State superintendent of public schools, Tennessee; Hon. Robert M. Lusher, State superintendent of public education, Louisiana; Hon. W. P. Haisley, State superintendent of public instruction, Florida; Hon. William O. Rogers, chief superintendent of public schools, New Orleans, La.; Hon. J. A. Smith, State superintendent of public education, Mississippi; Hon. E. P. Dickson, superintendent of city schools, Mobile, Ala.; Hon. Hugh S. Thompson, State superintendent of education, South Carolina; Hon. U. T. Curran, superintendent of public schools, Sandusky, Ohio; Hon. J. B. Peaslee, superintendent of public schools, Cincinnati, Ohio; and Hon. Barnas Sears, agent of the Peabody fund, Staunton, Va.

The **PRESIDENT** appointed Hon. S. M. Etter, ex-State superintendent of Illinois, chairman of the committee on invitations; Hon. William H. Barringer, superintendent of city schools, Newark, N. J., chairman of the committee on resolutions; and Hon. M. A. Newell, State superintendent of public instruction, Maryland, chairman of the committee on national legislation.

The **PRESIDENT** stated that he would fill the other places on the committees as the delegates arrived.

The opening paper before the Department was read by Consul General JOHN HITZ, of Switzerland, on

POPULAR EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND.

In reviewing the educational efforts of Switzerland, having political traditions so unlike any other European nation, comparisons as to the respective results attained will be strictly avoided in this paper; and, on the other hand, it will be left entirely to my hearers to draw conclusions of their own as to how far, if at all, the experiences of the Swiss may be advantageously used in framing measures to render more effective

the educational system of the United States, politically so closely allied to Switzerland.

The educational progress of a nation is *real* just so far as it emanates from the people; so, speaking of my country, it must be remembered that the principles of democracy have for centuries ruled supreme in Switzerland. Whatever, therefore, has been done to promote intellectual culture, necessarily either originated with or was approved and fostered by the people at large and cannot be ascribed solely to the wisdom of profound statesmen and enlightened rulers. It is true that previous to the Reformation, as in other countries, the church, or, more properly speaking, certain religious orders, mainly gave direction to the instruction imparted to the youth of the land; but as early as the sixteenth century we find the people in such localities as Zürich moving in the matter through their civil authorities and enacting laws to regulate the appointment of teachers. Still, it remained for the self-sacrificing Pestalozzi, the noble and cultured Fellenberg, the steadfast Wehrli, and the beloved Father Girard to give impetus to the popular will and stimulate the people to those efforts in the direction of popular education which, in democratic Switzerland, eventually developed into that greatest of all blessings of the nineteenth century, the modern public school system.

These men laid down the maxim that "the best antidote to distress and poverty and the surest road to public welfare is enlightenment;" and only recently a member of the Swiss Congress, Mr. Friderich, of Geneva, declared in debate that he considered "intellectual pauperism more to be dreaded in a democratic commonwealth than in any other."

EARLY COURSE OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

In what manner the subject of popular education has engaged the attention of most of the cantonal governments of Switzerland need not here be further enlarged upon, as my remarks on this occasion will be chiefly devoted to the efforts made of late by the people of Switzerland to ingraft upon their federal statutes provisions having an important bearing upon popular education and the results thus far obtained. It may well be presumed, from what has already been said, that the people of Switzerland jealously guard against any attempt at "centralization" not absolutely needed for self-protection. Nevertheless, recognizing the necessity of making common cause in promoting the intellectual growth of the country, there was embodied in the constitution of 1848 the following article: "The confederation is empowered to establish a university and a polytechnic school." As is well known, the government in its conservatism concluded first to establish the now flourishing Federal Polytechnic Institute at Zürich, now having a faculty of 40 resident professors, 20 assistants, and 47 instructors of a lower grade, and, according to the report of 1877, 710 regular pupils and 277 attendants on lectures. The question of establishing a national university (though such an institution appeared very desirable, because of the more typi-

cally republican direction it would give students in matters of political economy, jurisprudence, and social science), owing to the fact that four universities of about equal merit already existed in various sections of Switzerland which afforded ample opportunity to all qualified and desirous to enter upon the highest range of studies, seemed less pressing than many other matters crowding upon the attention of the federal government, especially that covered by the terse provision of Article XVIII of the federal constitution, "Every Swiss is subject to military duty."

To organize for efficient military service the citizens of the land, it not only became necessary to establish a central training school for officers, but to provide courses of military instruction in all parts of the country, so that every Swiss could be taught to perform his military duty with the least possible detriment to the economic services he owed his family and community.

While thus training the people at large for purposes of self-protection, it has been shown conclusively that the more intelligent the citizen the less time it takes to impart to him effectively the requisite military training for the country's defence and the more useful he proves in maintaining order at home. The intelligent citizen soldier cannot be made the tool of designing politicians or of visionary revolutionists; such a soldier in a democratic republic by his vote helps to make the laws of the land and is not easily persuaded to destroy by force of arms what he himself aided in constructing; if a remedy must be applied, he well knows that his vote is quite as powerful as his bayonet and less hazardous to himself and his family.

And just here it is well to state that the excellent military organization prevailing in Switzerland has done much to show defects in the system of intellectual training and direct the attention of the people to the fact that it was less a university they needed for the more favored, gifted, and ambitious, than a national system of elementary instruction which should insure to every citizen the requisite acquirements for performing intelligently both his civil and military duties to the state.

EFFORTS TO EXTEND THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

How this was to be attained did not long remain a problem after the people became conscious of its necessity. There we again find the federal authorities (anxious to serve the people, but not disposed to anticipate their wishes) inviting public expression relative to the propriety of federal legislation in behalf of public instruction. To illustrate the public feeling upon this subject, as expressed from standpoints differing in political and religious creeds, I present the gist of several petitions addressed to the federal authorities:

At a public meeting in Morat (July 12, 1870) it was resolved to recommend "placing the public schools under the supervision of the federal government."

At an assemblage of "Liberals" in Lucerne (October 10, 1870) it was voted to recommend "that the federal government be declared competent to fix by law a minimum of public instruction, exercise a supervision of schools, and establish normal institutions for the training of Swiss public school teachers."

The Pius Society of Upper Toggenburg (November 7, 1870), in a memorial presented by Father Klaus, opposed obligatory attendance at school and recommended "complete freedom in matters of tuition and instruction," yet added, in recognition of the popular demand, that intelligence should be requisite to the exercise of citizenship. "Such as cannot read printed and written matter nor write their name should be placed under guardianship and disqualified from voting or entering into contracts of any kind."

The following year the Swiss teachers' convention, held at Zürich October 14, 1871, took up the question, and after an elaborate argument formulated its views in the following article, which it urged should be incorporated into the federal constitution as an amendment:

Public instruction in the first instance devolves upon the cantons. The federal authorities, however, are empowered and *it is their duty* to keep themselves informed at all times of the character and extent of instruction imparted by the educational institutions of the cantons, and to insist upon such measures and modes of conducting public schools as shall seem to insure to every one knowledge adequate for the proper exercise of social and civil duty; and also to supplement with federal normal schools the existing cantonal teachers' institutes.

Numerous other petitions of a like character emanating from public meetings and associations of various kinds might be introduced to show how alive the people had become to the necessity of securing more uniformity and infusing greater efficiency into the elementary instruction offered to their children.

When the question finally, in the form of a proposed amendment to the constitution, came before the Swiss house of representatives for discussion no less than thirty members delivered set speeches upon the subject, and in addition discussed the elaborate arguments presented in the majority and the two minority reports of the special committee of nineteen having the matter in charge.

To enter into particulars respecting the various views presented in favor of and in opposition to giving the federal government supervisory power in matters of elementary instruction would encroach too much on your time. It will suffice if I give in brief the views which ultimately prevailed and gave statutory form to the various ideas presented. They are perhaps best embodied in the argument of the late President Stämpfli, favorably known to Americans as Swiss arbitrator in the matter of the Alabama claims. This able statesman advocated an amendment to the constitution in substance as follows:

Instruction in primary (elementary) schools is obligatory and gratuitous. Religious orders are not to be intrusted with it. The confederation can enact laws affixing the minimum standard of instruction to be exacted of primary schools.

Mr. Stämpfli showed how illogical it was for the confederation to interest itself in the higher education of the few and neglect elementary instruction which affected beneficially the masses. He said :

Every year some sixty or seventy thousand children leave the primary school. Hardly six or eight hundred of them will ever reap the benefit of our higher institutions of learning; we thus do nothing for 99 per cent. of these children; surely, this is no small matter. We have ingrafted on our statutes provisions empowering the federal government to assist cantons in works of public utility; other provisions relate to the protection of forests and rivers; others refer to railroads and banks, to the naturalization of foreigners, to marriage, &c. All these, as a whole, appertain to material matters, and an article having some bearing upon the intellectual development of the nation, it would seem but fit and proper, should be added thereto. The state certainly cannot be indifferent to the greater or less intelligence possessed by the youth of the land which it calls into military service for its protection, and which in time will certainly mould its destiny at the polls. Our political life grows from year to year more democratic, as the people are called upon more and more to take part in the work of legislation. It cannot, therefore, be a matter of indifference to the state with what grade of intelligence 99 per cent. of its children leave school. Abundant proof exists that a large number of the young soldiers of the republic are seriously deficient even in reading and writing. Elementary instruction to a certain grade must, therefore, be made compulsory, and, being so made, must be gratuitous; for, if it is obligatory to send children to school, it would be wrong to exact payment from those having to send them, &c.

The amendment in substance above cited, being incorporated with others of an objectionable character, failed to be ratified when submitted to the people. It was not until January 31, 1874, that the question again took definite form in an amendment to the federal constitution, now in force, approved April 19, 1874, by a large majority vote of the people. It reads as follows :

ART. XXVII. The confederation is authorized to establish, in addition to the existing polytechnic school, a university and other higher institutions of learning, or aid such institutions.

The cantons shall provide satisfactory elementary instruction, which must be under the exclusive control of the civil authorities; said instruction is obligatory and in the public schools gratuitous.

Persons of all creeds shall be enabled to attend the public schools without infringement of their religious belief or liberty of conscience.

The confederation will adopt requisite measures to proceed against cantons failing to comply with these provisions.

Previous to explaining somewhat in detail the bearing which the several provisions of this article have had upon elementary instruction in Switzerland, and before I refer to the beneficial results yet in prospect, I must again revert to the military organization, or, as it might be called, the militia system of Switzerland, and show how effectively it aids the efforts of the educator in developing a system of public instruction which shall in reality rear the child into a useful and intelligent citizen.

INFLUENCE OF THE SWISS MILITIA SYSTEM ON POPULAR EDUCATION.

In the first place the military ordinances of Switzerland require that the cantonal governments shall give all boys a gymnastic course of training, commencing at the age of ten and continuing until their twentieth

year. During the last two years target practice, involving the manual of arms, may be introduced by federal authority. These ordinances permit the release from further military service of teachers of public schools who have passed the "recruiting" course, and altogether relieve them from military duty after attaining the age of 25 years. But this is by no means all, for, as has already been said, every Swiss is subject to military duty, and at the age of 20 years every youth found physically qualified must be enrolled. At such time the recruit is also subjected to an examination as to his educational status, and I append a statement of what is expected and will be exacted of him under the rules approved by the federal government September 28, 1875. Unless the recruit can bring satisfactory proof of having creditably attended at least one year an institution of higher grade than that of an elementary school (which latter implies a course of from 6 to 9 years' attendance), he will be examined in reading, writing, arithmetic, and history.

His responses to these four test subjects will be rated as follows:

Reading: (1) Mechanically correct reading, intelligent intonation according to subject and form, or at all events a free rendering. (2) Satisfactory mechanical reading and correct responses to questions relating to the subject read. (3) Mechanical reading devoid of passable knowledge of contents. (4) Inability to read even mechanically.

Writing: (1) A brief composition—as to contents and form, orthography, calligraphy, and punctuation to be correct. (2) A brief composition showing more or less deficiency and defects in one or another of the points first named. (3) Form and contents of composition weak and unintelligible. (4) Worthless effort at composition.

Arithmetic: (1) Expertness in the four fundamental rules, with simple numbers and fractions, illustrated by examples in the ordinary line of business. (2) Application of the four rules with simple numbers. (3) Only partial solution of examples in the four rules. (4) No solution whatever.

History: (1) Statement of the principal events of Swiss history and leading provisions of the constitution. (2) Correct answers to historical and geographical questions relating to Switzerland. (3) Knowledge of at least some of the events or names embraced in the questions asked under number two. (4) No correct response at all.

Such of the recruits as have number four marked against them in more than one of the above branches of knowledge must attend, during their period of service as recruits, the supplementary schools established by the military authorities; these schools give instruction in the branches above indicated.

These tests when first made showed an appalling difference in the educational status of the citizens of different localities. For instance, in the examination of 1876, from 29 to 48 per cent. of young men were rated as obliged to attend the supplementary schools, or, in the aggregate, 3,577 (12.04 per cent.) out of a total of 28,851 examined. As was

to be expected, the laggard localities in matters of elementary instruction promptly received attention from both the cantonal and federal authorities, and it is asserted that not many years will elapse before the effect of the constitutional provision already cited will give a very different showing.

WORKING OF THE SYSTEM.

Thus we see that, despite the advanced state of public instruction in the larger part of Switzerland, serious defects were apparent in some sections, demanding the great power of public opinion formulated in a federal statute to remedy them.

How this remedy is applied I now propose to show; and the educator will therein recognize what progress, if any, Switzerland has made within the last three years in the matter of public instruction.

When we come to examine more closely Article XXVII of the constitution it will be found that its scope is far greater than at first might be supposed.

The first section unquestionably empowers the federal government not only to establish a national university and maintain the existing Federal Polytechnic Institute, but also to establish normal institutes for teachers of both sexes; in fact, taking into consideration what follows relative to elementary instruction and the drift of the debate in congress, the establishment of federal normal schools to train teachers for the public schools seems well nigh imperative. Article XXXII of the constitution also implies this, as it virtually empowers the confederation to introduce and bestow upon primary school teachers federal certificates of competency.

This is considered by educators a great step forward in raising the standard of teachers employed in public schools—securing eventually greater uniformity in text books, in the courses of instruction, in school appliances, and altogether attaining a greater average efficiency.

The second section of the statute ("The cantons shall provide satisfactory elementary instruction which must be exclusively under the control of the civil authorities") incites cantonal emulation and removes the danger of drifting into a centralization detrimental to individual effort. It fixes the standard of attainment in exacting "satisfactory" or "sufficient" elementary instruction.

In order that the term primary or elementary instruction may not be misunderstood, I would state that it comprises in general terms a course of from six to nine years' study, embracing: (1) Reading, writing, and composition; (2) mental and written arithmetic, including the four fundamental rules, decimal fractions, and various applications of the rule of three (*Regeldetri*); (3) geography and elementary cosmography; (4) history of Switzerland and a knowledge of the provisions of its constitution; (5) geometrical drawing; (6) vocal music; (7) the elements of hygiene and natural history, and, in rural districts, of agriculture; (8) for girls, female handiwork; (9) for boys, gymnastics.

"Satisfactory" or "sufficient" elementary instruction is not only to be required in public schools, but it is obligatory upon the federal government to exact it also in denominational and private schools, and even in the family, when it is preferred to impart instruction at home. In fact, all Swiss children physically and mentally qualified must receive "sufficient" or satisfactory elementary instruction, no matter whether poor or rich, whether Catholic or Protestant, Israelite or Gentile.

In order that there shall be no evasion possible, it is made obligatory upon the cantons to provide this elementary instruction under their immediate supervision, and the civil authorities, therefore, cannot delegate this duty to any religious or secular order. If, however, any religious order, private corporation, or individual elects to give elementary instruction to Swiss youth within the territory of any canton, said canton must see to it that the same comes up to the federal standard designated "sufficient;" otherwise it is liable to be prosecuted by the federal government.

The third section, making this elementary instruction "obligatory" on all and at the same time stating that in public schools it must be "gratuitous," leaves no excuse whatever for any failure to attain it. This is well recognized by most of the cantons through statutory provisions enacted mainly since the adoption of this federal law, although Article III of the transitionary provisions of the federal constitution accords five years (until April 19, 1879) to carry this measure fully into effect.

Thus we find in the canton of Upper Unterwalden that the elementary school course by law begins when a child is seven years of age, and continues for six years; to which is added two years' attendance in a higher grade (making eight years in all). This is obligatory, and all youths just previous to enrolment as recruits receive a special review course of instruction occupying 40 hours

The canton of Vaud requires localities over thirty minutes' walk from a public school and containing not less than twenty children of school age to establish a winter course of instruction; for unexcused non-attendance at school this canton imposes penalties upon the parents, such as citation before the municipal authorities and fines ranging from two cents up to five dollars. This canton also requires, wherever there is a class of forty girls, either in the country or city schools, that a six months' course of instruction be given in female handiwork and household duties.

The canton of Valais requires its children to attend the elementary schools for eight years, and from the fifteenth to the twentieth year of age to participate in review courses. Unexcused non-attendance subjects parents and guardians to fines ranging from four cents to six dollars.

In the cantons of Lucerne, Freiburg, Zug, Thurgau, Schaffhausen, St. Gall, and others, not only fines are imposed for unexcused non-attendance at school, but even imprisonment is added.

In the case of the canton of Soleure, for instance, after an absence from

school for two half days, the teacher notifies the parent or guardian through the police. At the expiration of every month the teacher sends to the nearest magistrate or police court a list of absentees, or he may during the month enter complaint. The magistrate gives judgment for the amount of penalty and transmits the same to the police court or presiding judge, where, if thought advisable, the penalty may be increased. These fines range from ten cents to five dollars, and must be paid within a month, or the defaulting party is subject to imprisonment. The police is empowered to arrest any truant and take the same to school, and for so doing receives the fine imposed upon the parent or guardian.

This suffices to show that the provisions of the third section of the article relating to elementary instruction have every prospect of being complied with.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

In order that there may be no doubt upon whom the religious training of children devolves, since section 2 of the twenty-seventh article of the federal constitution exacts a complete secularization of the public school system, we find that in section 2 of Article XLIX the religious training of children under 16 years of age is explicitly remitted to parents and guardians; and in order that such training may not be interfered with, section 4 of Article XXVII secures to all attendants at the public schools entire freedom in matters of faith and conscience; for bigotry is not confined to the clergy or to religious orders, but is also quite often met with in scientific and scholarly enthusiasts. Recognizing this fact, it was thought well to restrict alike both overzealous churchmen and materialists. The result is that children of all creeds may attend the public schools of Switzerland, regardless of the tenets held by the teachers or prevailing in the respective municipalities. During the regular course of instruction, the programme of which is subject to federal inspection, doctrinal text books, and the teaching of religious dogmas are inadmissible. Religious instruction, however, is not debarred from being given in the public school buildings, but it must be imparted at a time which shall not interfere with the regular daily course of secular studies; in other words, before or after school hours. At such times attendance can in no case be made obligatory.

It is true that in a country like Switzerland it will require time to enable the people of all localities to adapt themselves fully to this new order of things; but as a whole the several cantons are framing their laws and changing their customs to conform to the federal law, and its tendency, it is thought, will rather vivify than weaken religious training.

NORMAL TRAINING.

In securing a satisfactory grade of elementary instruction much remains to be done in the way of providing for greater uniformity of school hours, in establishing the maximum number of scholars to a class

or teacher, and in determining the minimum duration of elementary instruction; all these subjects are receiving attention.

I have already alluded to the important services of certain great Swiss teachers in giving direction and form to the progress made in popular education. I will now speak of the great body of teachers of the day, what is expected of them, what they have done, how earnestly and actively they labor in promoting the cause of education, and what the federal government proposes to do in facilitating their efforts.

The indefatigable Numa Droz, late secretary of the interior of Switzerland, in a most able report recently made to the High Federal Council, very pointedly says: "As is the teacher so will be the school;" and he then argues that it is simply impossible, no matter how excellent the system, to attain a satisfactory grade of instruction with indifferent teachers; the greatest and most effective reform of all others, in his opinion, would be to provide thorough teachers for all Switzerland. The questions in regard to a more uniform course of studies, text books salaries, &c., would certainly then be satisfactorily solved. Raise the standard of pedagogical studies, but at the same time give every aspirant for pedagogical honors free access to your normal schools and teachers' institutes. It is from want of proper pedagogical training that so many defects have made themselves apparent in modern modes of instruction. Says Secretary Droz:

How often do we find children leaving our public schools unfitted to enter upon the practical duties of life incumbent upon them; how often do we see children studying philosophy, chemistry, literature, and the like, when in their composition and spelling the grossest errors are noticeable; how often children pore over the geography of Asia and Africa, delve into the history of Egypt and Persia, while unable to relate even the most memorable events of their own country or correctly define its boundaries.

Half a century ago the common school did not venture beyond the catechism, and a little reading, writing, and ciphering, while nowadays the tendency is to rush to the other extreme; intellectual gluttony would seem to have followed close upon intellectual poverty. The fact is, the public school of the present aims to do too much, and consequently the teacher, ill prepared for such work, fails to do well what is assigned to him. Prof. Joseph Payne says most forcibly on this subject:

There is much talk nowadays about "raising the standard" of education, and it would seem that some think the standard may be raised by the addition of new subjects to the curriculum of elementary instruction. If, however, the machinery of our education is defective—and the results prove that it is—giving it more work to do is surely a unique device for improving its action. The mill grinds badly, and the grist is unsatisfactory; and the remedy proposed is to put more corn into the hopper.

In concluding his report, Secretary Droz says that the most powerful and effective lever for raising the system of public instruction in Switzerland would, in his opinion, be "direct or indirect participation by the federal government in the training of teachers for elementary schools."

The federal government even of a republic deems it essential itself to train the instructors of its military arm. Why not equally essential that

it should train the instructor of its civil arm? If the hand that wields the sword and the mind that devises the defences in times of war must be trained by the State, surely, then, the hand that wields the pen and the mind that frames its legislation in times of peace should receive their training from the same source.

Prof. Aimé Humbert, deservedly looked upon in Switzerland as an acknowledged leader in matters of education, has given this subject of establishing federal normal schools much study. In a series of able letters to Professor Desor, of the Swiss congress, he recommends the establishment of a federal normal institute comprising two sections — one in German, the other in French Switzerland, with a branch in the Italian canton. The full course of study should embrace 4 years, the third to be spent by the student from German Switzerland either in the French or Italian section and vice versa. The annual expense to the federal government of maintaining such an institution is estimated by Professor Humbert at \$30,000.

At the commencement of last year (1878) there were in Switzerland 27 normal schools and teachers' institutes. Twenty were public institutions, and of these the cantons of Berne and Valais each had four, leaving one each to twelve other cantons, while ten cantons were entirely without normal institutions.

Under these circumstances, one must wonder that in Switzerland public instruction has advanced to its present standard. But when we see what is done for the training of teachers in some localities we readily recognize the influence the graduates must have exercised upon the popular mind and upon the system of elementary instruction wherever they have been intrusted with it.

No matter what the creed or sex of the teachers, whether Catholic, Protestant, Israelite, or Gentile, cantonal laws now exact certificates of competency. In the canton of Soleure, for instance, persons desiring to devote themselves to teaching are required to attend a three years' normal course, when, only upon graduating, they receive a diploma entitling them to teach. Others not attending this course desiring to teach must successfully pass an examination like that to which the successful graduates of the teachers' institute have been subjected. In some cantons teachers not continuously in service are likewise subjected to reëxamination at stated periods.

What in Switzerland has greatly impaired the labors of the teacher up to the present time is the excessively large numbers of scholars in some of the schools and classes assigned to one teacher, ranging, as they do, from 50 in the canton of Neuchâtel to 60, 70, 80, and even 100 in the canton of Zürich; for industrial and drawing classes the maximum ranges from 30 to 40 pupils.

Another serious obstacle in the way of securing better results is the number of hours appointed for tuition, ranging, as it does, according to locality and season from 25 to 36 hours per week, exclusive of gymnastic and other extra courses.

INSUFFICIENT PAY OF TEACHERS.

A last and great complaint made by the teachers of Switzerland is in regard to the unequal and, in many cases, sadly inadequate salaries fixed by the civil authorities. This deters many endowed by nature for the vocation from preparing for and professionally entering upon the career of a teacher. This question of "salary" has of late repeatedly been brought to the attention of the federal authorities by petition and otherwise. It is claimed, and it would seem justly so, that the teachers in the civil service of the people should be paid at least as well as the teachers in the military service.

At the teachers' convention in Winterthur, 1874, after considerable discussion and elucidation of the subject, it was formally determined to recommend the passage of a federal law fixing the minimum pay of teachers in the elementary public schools. The federal authorities while recognizing the difficulty of framing such a law as would operate equitably in all sections of Switzerland, nevertheless do not seem indisposed to give the subject serious consideration. To do so, it is believed would make it easier to secure a better class and an increased number of candidates for admission to the federal normal schools, should such schools be established. The point is made that if federal law can fix the standard of public instruction in elementary schools and the minimum of knowledge required for the position of a teacher, it is also competent to determine the minimum salary to be accorded to such position..

According to the latest information upon the subject (1874), the salaries of the 5,789 public school teachers then in Switzerland varied beyond all conception, ranging, so far as known, from about \$100 to \$900 a year, with all manner of provisions as to perquisites, the furnishing of substitutes, and other responsibilities. Many localities furnish fuel and residence, some exempt teachers from taxation of all kinds, while others enrol them in endowment associations, and seven cantons accord regular pensions (some to the extent of half pay) to teachers retired or superannuated.

It will therefore be seen that the provisions made for the training of teachers in Switzerland are good, I might say excellent, so far as they go, but that these institutions are far too few in number and limited in means to supply efficient instructors for all the land. It will also be seen that the teachers of Switzerland labor under many and serious disadvantages in regard to the responsibilities exacted of them and the remuneration accorded.

Despite all this, the Swiss teachers are by no means disheartened. You will find them constantly gathering and consulting upon matters of common interest and educational progress. Annually you will find at the convention of the Swiss teachers' union an attendance of a thousand or more of these earnest promoters of intellectual advancement and civilization. You will find them active not only in the school room

but also on the field of social and political science, called upon frequently to participate prominently in municipal, state, and national affairs; in fact the Swiss school teacher may well be looked upon as embodying more than any other the elements of a true type of the "man of the people," ruling the destinies of the democratic republic of Switzerland.

EDUCATIONAL BUREAU AND MUSEUM.

An educational museum, to which the federal government extends liberal aid, is already performing its work in Zürich; but to give better form and expression to the earnest efforts of Swiss educators and instructors, we need in Switzerland, as an adjunct to the department of the interior, a federal bureau of education, such as the Congress of the United States has most wisely established at the seat of this Government, and which by efficient management has already proved and will continue to prove a blessing to the land second to none. Its excellent annual and special reports prominently hold up the mirror for self-examination, and where shortcomings present themselves to view, you, teachers and instructors, as the custodians of an essential element in promoting the public welfare, are expected to indicate the remedy, which the wise legislator will surely not be slow to apply. Such an institution we need in Switzerland, and I am happy to say have every prospect ere long of obtaining. It will place the capstone on the statutory structure of which "elementary instruction under federal supervision" constitutes the foundation.

CONCLUSION.

In conclusion, I would say that it is not the prestige won by ancestors in battle nor the guarantee of neutrality vouchsafed by the great powers of Europe nor its apparently unassailable Alpine fastnesses that for centuries have protected republican institutions in Switzerland; the secret of the preservation and maintenance of freedom lies in the maxim "knowledge is power," which in Switzerland has ever received popular recognition. To its teachers and schools even more than to its soldiers and statesmen, are owing the freedom and prosperity which my country enjoys.

On the conclusion of the reading of the paper, which was listened to with marked attention,

Mr. BARNES, of Pennsylvania, said: I would like to ask whether we are to distinguish between teachers' institutes and normal schools, as mentioned in the paper, or do the terms mean the same?

Mr. HITZ. They are identical.

Mr. BARNES. I desire to know also what the public sentiment is on the subject of compulsory attendance in Switzerland. Can you give us a correct idea as to that, Mr. Hitz?

Mr. HITZ. The vote would perhaps show what that sentiment is better than any other evidence that could be given. It was overwhelmingly in favor of compulsory education. I would say that in what we call the

Ultramontane section of Switzerland they are opposed to compulsory education, not unanimously, but in a large majority; but all the other sections of Switzerland voted, by a large majority, in favor of compulsory attendance. The ground taken was that, being made compulsory, it was also, of course, made gratuitous.

President WICKERSHAM hoped that the paper of Mr. Hitz would be extensively circulated. He said that the Swiss school system resembles ours more than any other European system does. The Swiss schools are free and graded; German, French, and English schools are not so in the sense in which we use the words. We can learn much from the Swiss, especially about industrial training in connection with common schools. Swiss schoolmasters are accustomed to teach their boy scholars the rudiments of agriculture, horticulture, gardening, vine raising, &c., on the little fields attached to the school-houses. He would ask Mr. Hitz whether this is the general usage.

Mr. HITZ. Provisions of the law in most of the agricultural cantons require the teacher to spend a part of his time in teaching the pupils the first lessons in gardening and agriculture. In the canton of Vaud, particularly, you will find this. We have no large towns or cities in Switzerland, and the people are consequently more or less strangers. [Laughter.] The teachers in the villages and rural districts all inhabit their houses rent free and have a little garden of an acre or two and sometimes five or six acres attached, and they not only work these little patches of ground with a view to instructing the children in the elements of gardening, horticulture, &c., according to the taste of the teacher, but also with a view to the work of the pupils on larger tracts for the benefit of their communes. They have, therefore, a regular course of training in agricultural science.

President WICKERSHAM remarked that while the boys are thus taught outside the school-houses, the girls are instructed in sewing, cutting out garments, knitting, &c. He had seen at Interlaken the school girls following the patterns for cutting which were drawn on the blackboard for their lesson; he would not dwell on this matter of industrial training in Switzerland so much if he were not convinced that it should be incorporated into our American system. He had observed another interesting practice in Switzerland: he had seen many parties of scholars travelling with their teachers in the most beautiful and instructive parts of the country. Would Mr. Hitz inform the meeting whether these "peripatetic schools" are common in his country.

Mr. HITZ replied that it is a common custom.

President WICKERSHAM thought these trips an admirable way of teaching children the forms and laws of nature.

Mr. BARRINGER asked if the Swiss are troubled by any desire of the girls to do what is assigned to the boys.

Mr. HITZ. As yet we have not discovered any such tendency to an alarming degree. I suppose it comes from the instruction they receive at home and from the example of the parents. [Laughter.]

Mr. BARRINGHAM could not agree entirely with Mr. Wickersham in wishing to add industrial departments to our common schools; although he did not think they would be practicable or desirable, he was glad to hear all these ideas presented and these plans discussed. People are becoming roused and are asking questions; our teachers are travelling more than ever before. Time was, and only a few years ago, when no one could go abroad to travel in Europe but sickly clergymen of rich congregations; but in these days we see even poor schoolmasters running around in Switzerland. [Laughter.] He begged the chairman's pardon; he did not mean to say that they are *poor* schoolmasters, only impecunious. [Laughter.] These inquiring teachers are visiting various parts of Europe and noticing what is going on there, and they come home and give us the valuable information they have gathered. It is one of the most encouraging signs of the times in our educational work that we are trying to learn from one another and from other nations. He favored the comparison of facts, the collection of statistics, and the publication of information for the public use.

The PRESIDENT said that he was requested to extend a cordial invitation to the members to visit the office of the United States Bureau of Education.

Mr. C. W. BARDINE, of Syracuse, N. Y., resuming the previous discussion, asked whether foreign countries are troubled, as our own is, by the prejudice among many people against manual and industrial pursuits, which he thought might be the result of injudicious education.

Mr. HITZ replied that the Swiss are generally too poor to become lawyers or physicians, nor are these professions popular. Work is esteemed and almost all the children are trained to some industry; the idea being to furnish such instruction as will enable them to become industrious and intelligent citizens of the community. After mentioning the right possessed by his countrymen to vote for the laws passed by the legislatures, and the importance of having intelligent voters under these circumstances, he alluded to the opportunities for obtaining professional training in Switzerland: the four universities and the military schools. He added that the school system of Switzerland is supervised by regular inspectors, appointed and paid by the government; only pupils of sufficient acquirements may be admitted from the lower grades to the university classes.

The PRESIDENT informed the Department that Dr. Barnas Sears, agent of the Peabody fund, would not be able to attend its meetings on account of important business.

POPULAR EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

The PRESIDENT then introduced Dr. E. C. Wines, secretary of the National Prison Association, who said:

Mr. President, I feel gratified by your kind introduction of me to this body, and by being called upon to address it, though the honor has

quite taken me by surprise." I have been much interested in the paper read by the consul general of Switzerland, of which I heard the greater part, as also in the discussion upon it, which has been exceedingly instructive. Both the consul and the speakers have furnished many important ideas in connection with the subject of education. It is perhaps not out of place nor foreign to the present purpose for me to say that the early part of my life was wholly devoted to the work of education. I spent some twenty-five years in this work, but for the last eighteen years I have been connected with it only so far as it belongs to the penitentiary administration of different countries.

Education has made great progress in prisons. This could be easily shown, but I do not propose to show it now.

I looked a little into the subject of popular instruction in France during my recent visit there, and was extremely gratified with the earnestness and activity of the government and people, and particularly of the city of Paris. I believe that I am quite within the bounds of truth in expressing the opinion that the progress made by France in the department of public education within the last eight years is greater, absolutely, than all the progress made in that country during the years intervening between the revolution of 1789 and that of 1870.

The republican leaders of France feel that the very life of the republic, its permanence, depends upon the diffusion of popular instruction among the masses, and with great vigor, and great liberality too, they are directing their efforts to that point. They say that the country must be covered with school-houses; that the smallest hamlet must have one of its own. The country is going to build immediately 17,000 school-houses; 3,000 more are to be purchased or appropriated, and 5,000 are to be altered and enlarged. But how obtain the necessary funds for so vast a work? M. Waddington has solved that problem. In March, 1877, he submitted a bill under the provisions of which 120,000,000 francs (equal to \$23,160,000) will be expended in five years on the construction of school-houses. But not only is public instruction extending in breadth, its thoroughness is increasing in an equal ratio.

Industrial education is also being introduced into the public schools. Plain sewing has long been taught to the girls who attend the schools of Paris, but now, in some of the arrondissements at least, dressmaking has been added, and girls belonging to the working classes are taught to make a dress, from cutting it out to putting on the last flounce. They become experts in that department of labor. One excellent result has been that parents now leave their children in the public schools a year longer, which is an advantage in many ways.

The French people hold also that the acquirement of good habits in general is a matter of the first importance, and that such habits should be sedulously cultivated in school. For example, the habit of economy they regard as a preservative from many evils and a source of many blessings; consequently, they make the school an agent in developing and

strengthening this virtue. The municipality of Paris gives an annual premium of 100 to 150 francs to the most diligent and best behaved child in every hundred in the public schools. This money is put into a savings bank, and the child is furnished with a bank book; the money therein placed to the child's credit remains in the bank until he reaches his majority; his parents cannot touch it, it being made by law his personal property. Not only that, but every child is permitted when he or she gets a single sou to give it to the teacher, who takes it and is obliged to keep an account with the child until the deposits amount to a franc; then the account is placed in the savings bank, and the child gets a bank book and keeps it. That money, as I have said, belongs to the child, and not to the parents, and hence many children in the public schools are laying up a little money and at the same time acquiring the habit of economy, which, as you know, Mr. President, is worth more than the money itself.

In Paris, the superintendent of public education has charge as well of schools of a higher character as of the more elementary schools. They are establishing schools there for the purpose of teaching trades; they have one now, a very important one, at La Villette, in Paris. One of the plans adopted is to keep the child engaged for a year in learning the use of the tools most commonly employed in the working of wood iron, and other raw materials for manufacturing purposes, until he can judge for himself what kind of mechanical work he would like best; then he is placed in a special shop, under a foreman. The course in this school lasts three years. It is in contemplation to establish other similar professional schools in different parts of Paris.

The Parisians have another practice to which I will refer. In answer to a question put to the consul general as to whether the children in his country are taken out and taught in the woods and fields, among the trees, rocks, streams, mosses, flowers, &c., Mr. Hitz referred to such a custom in Switzerland. There are five schools in Paris called superior schools of public instruction. The authorities have a system of taking from each of these superior public schools the fifty best scholars, as ascertained by examination, and the conduct comes in as well as attention and progress in learning. The annual vacation of two months in summer is spent by these selected pupils, under the care and guidance of able professors, at some celebrated seaport, manufacturing town, or historical city, where they carefully inspect and examine whatever objects of interest and curiosity the place contains.

I believe strongly, Mr. President, in the importance of that thing; and forty-five years ago, when I was conducting the Edgehill School, in New Jersey, my practice was once a month to take the whole school with all the teachers, for an entire day, into the country, where they wandered up and down streams, rambled through the woods, gathered wild flowers, &c.; and on their return I required them on the next letter day to give an account to their parents of the excursion, with is

incidents and sports. Once in the course of each session my practice was to take them for two days to some neighboring town or village, and while there, as well as in going and returning, they were required to make close and careful observations under the guidance of the teachers and myself, and then, when they returned, I always gave them an entire day to write out the account of their observations and enjoyments, which in like manner they sent to their parents. These I looked upon as among the most profitable as well as agreeable of the days and exercises of the school. I had many students from a distance, mostly from the Southern States. The vacations lasted a month in the spring and a month in the autumn. The time was too short for them to go home. And there were generally half a dozen of the pupils who, under the protection of a teacher, went on journeys often to distant parts of the country; such scholars were always required to keep a journal of all they saw and experienced, and send it to their friends. This also was found extremely useful.

I agree entirely with you, Mr. President, in the views you have expressed, from which a friend has dissented, that some degree of instruction should be given in the industrial arts even in our common schools. This idea is carried out very successfully in Sweden.

I have occupied too much time, Mr. President, and am much obliged for your patience and that of this learned assemblage.

The Department then adjourned to meet at 7.30 P. M.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY EVENING.

WASHINGTON, *February 4, 1879.*

The Department reassembled at 7.30 P. M., President Wickersham in the chair.

The convention was tendered and accepted an invitation to visit Mr. Z. Richards's Eclectic Seminary, at No. 1434 Q street.

Hon. W. H. BARRINGER, of Newark, in the absence of the author, Hon. E. A. Apgar, superintendent of public instruction for the State of New Jersey, read a paper on

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Before going to Europe the past summer I was honored with a nomination by Governor McClellan and an appointment by President Hayes as United States Commissioner to the Paris Exposition. I was also favored by General Eaton, chief of our National Bureau of Education, with letters of introduction to prominent educators and school officers in various countries. I thus enjoyed peculiar advantages in studying school systems abroad.

While historical monuments, church architecture, picture galleries, sculpture, antiquities, museums, natural scenery, the Paris Exposition,

&c., all made demands upon my time, I endeavored to give special attention to European systems and methods of instruction, and seldom left a city without either visiting some of the schools or ascertaining something of what was being done for the education of the children.

In some respects their schools resemble ours, and in others the contrast is quite striking.

The buildings, as a rule, are not so good as those in this country. Most of them have either been rented or purchased and awkwardly adapted to the uses of the school. Even in Paris, the schools I visited were held in buildings which had not originally been erected for school purposes.

Not in a single school from London to Naples did I find the school furniture equal to ours. The pupils usually sit on long benches capable of accommodating from four to six. Some of the forms are for two only; in their construction, however, no attention is paid to beauty and but little to comfort. In general, I am justified in saying that the seats and desks for pupils and teachers in the schools of Europe are no better than those which were in use in ours twenty-five years ago. I saw many schools where there were evidences of as free a use of the jackknife as the Yankee boy was ever guilty of in the days when his natural propensity in this direction was unrestrained. The blackboards I saw were quite inferior, and what seemed most remarkable was that only one, large enough for the teacher's use, was to be seen in each room. Only the teacher makes use of the blackboard. In this respect our mode of teaching, which requires much blackboard work by the pupils, is far superior to foreign methods. The rooms are usually well supplied with maps and charts. Metric charts and apparatus are to be found in all the schools outside of England and in all departments. Small natural history collections are occasionally seen, but usually there is a large museum in the city which the classes, accompanied by their teachers, visit, and thus some knowledge is gained of familiar objects in natural history. In this respect we in this country are sadly deficient.

The military spirit which prevails in Europe is manifest in the schools. On every occasion when I entered a room all the children rose and gave the military salute. This consists in gracefully raising the right arm and placing the hand, with the two forefingers extended, at the side of the forehead. Being a simultaneous and graceful movement, it is a pleasant sight.

The schools outside of England are closed on Thursday instead of Saturday, as with us. There are numerous other holidays, called *festal days*, which sadly interrupt the work of education. Some are prescribed by the church, others by the state. In Italy scarcely a week passes without one or two interruptions of this nature.

The studies pursued are much the same as here. In all the girls' departments instruction is given in needle and crochet work, in embroidery, and in the making of lace. Usually one afternoon of each week is

devoted to handiwork of this nature. Much attention is given to composition writing, far more than with us. The teachers all seem to take special pride in showing the compositions which the pupils have written.

In our schools, except in the higher departments, the girls and boys are generally taught together. In Europe this coeducation of the sexes is unknown; in all the departments, from the lowest to the highest, they are separated. In Paris I found a custom prevailing which I did not observe elsewhere: the boys are all taught by men and the girls by women.

TUITION FEES.

Free schools for children of all classes, such as we have in this country, are as a rule unknown in Europe. The terms "public" and "free" are applied to their schools, but with a meaning different from that which belongs to them as used here. A "public school" is one subject to governmental control; a "free school" is one which, in a measure, is free from such restrictions and regulations as have been prescribed by the government. Both classes receive assistance from the public treasury, but not sufficient to meet all the expenses. Tuition fees are charged in both. Those known as "public schools" receive more aid from the government than those called "free," and hence the latter are more expensive to the patrons than the former. The proportion of expense paid for tuition varies in different countries. In London and Paris about four-fifths of the entire expense of maintaining the schools are paid by the government and the balance is assessed upon the parents of the children who attend. Last year the fees in London ranged from four to eighteen cents per week for each pupil. This is about the average in other countries; in some the percentage paid as tuition is lower, and in some it is higher. In several of the countries the governments have prescribed the maximum and the minimum for the charges that can be made, and the local authorities determine the varying amounts between these extremes that shall be paid by the school patrons, according to their varying financial conditions. I found in some cases that there was an ascending scale of fees charged, the expense being very slight in the lowest departments and gradually increasing through the advancing grades.

In all the countries provision is made for the free education of those who are unable to pay. Such children, however, are looked upon as pauper pupils. Sometimes all such are gathered together, and the school is known as a pauper school. The rule is, those who can pay, must. The distinction between the rich or those in moderate circumstances and the very poor, is thus made unpleasantly prominent.

Such, in brief, are a few of the observations I should make respecting the character and work of those schools abroad which correspond most nearly with our public schools; and in making a general comparison that shall be limited to schools of this grade, I feel justified in saying that our educational systems and methods of teaching are superior to those of Europe.

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS IN FRANCE.

There is another class of educational institutions to be found abroad, corresponding to which we have very few in this country, and in the study of which we may learn an important lesson; I refer to technical schools, or schools for workmen.

France has probably done more than any other country in fostering technical instruction. Special schools for educating workmen and artisans are found in every city throughout the republic. These are so conducted that any one, at a trifling expense, may pursue that course of training which will fit him for any trade or profession he may desire to pursue. The schools are divided as follows:

1. *Normal schools*.—In France there are eighty-six departments; in each of these there are two normal schools for the training of teachers, one for young ladies and the other for young men.

2. *Professional schools*.—In these schools pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age are taught to work in wood, iron, and brass. They are also instructed in mechanical and architectural drawing. A portion of the time is given to mental studies, especially to such as are in some wise related to the trades taught.

3. *Industrial schools*.—Pupils are here taught the art of making textile fabrics. Different materials are used, such as silk, wool, cotton, hemp, and flax. Much attention is paid to chemistry, because of its importance in the art of dyeing. The most thorough instruction is given in the art of designing.

4. *Schools of fine arts*.—Here every facility is afforded for obtaining a knowledge of drawing, designing, and modelling. In this class of schools the instruction is limited to art as applied to industry, or to what is known as industrial drawing.

5. *Trade schools*.—These are sometimes called apprentice schools. In them the ordinary trades are taught.

These special or technical schools are supported in various ways. A few receive direct government aid; some are supported by the departments. The trade schools are generally established and maintained by capitalists and manufacturers. Those interested in any particular line of business will contribute the funds necessary to support a school in which instruction in their trade can be given, and thus many large manufacturing firms educate their own workmen. These trade schools frequently receive some assistance from the cities in which they respectively are situated. But few of the schools are entirely free. The pupils generally pay a small tuition fee, the amount thus paid, however, being trifling.

These institutions may be divided, according to their support, into five classes:

1. *Government professional schools*, which receive their support from the government and are under the direct control of the minister of agriculture and commerce.

2. *Department professional schools*, which receive assistance from the departments in which they are respectively situated.

3. *City professional or trade schools*, which are supported in part by municipalities.

4. *Society trade schools*, which are controlled and supported by organized societies of tradesmen and capitalists.

5. *Private trade schools*, which are conducted strictly as private enterprises.

The exhibits made by these industrial schools constituted the chief attraction in the French educational department at the Paris Exposition. The exhibits consisted of articles made by the students, including drawings, models, machines, designs for textile fabrics, pottery decorations, lace, jewellery, clocks, watches, &c.

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS IN RUSSIA.

The exhibit made at Philadelphia by the technical schools of Russia suggested the establishment of the industrial department connected with the Institute of Technology at Boston, which has met with such marked success. The exhibit at Paris was much of the same character; it was far more extensive, however, and many of the articles manifested a higher degree of workmanship.

The *Institute of Technology* at St. Petersburg made an exhibit of students' work in wood and iron that was truly marvellous. The workmanship shown in the production of some of the articles was of the highest order. This school was founded in 1828. It has at present about 600 pupils. The course of instruction extends over five years. In the mechanical workshops the students commence with the trade they have chosen: they first learn the uses of the various tools and are taught certain test operations; they then proceed to the modelling of various machines and mechanical apparatus from given designs. In constructing an engine or any other complicated machine, each student makes but a single part. Any one will readily understand how accurate must be the workmanship and how closely the designs furnished must be followed in each case to insure a perfect agreement when those parts are brought together.

The *School of Trades* at St. Petersburg serves as a preparatory school for the Institute of Technology already described. Pupils thirteen years of age who have completed a three years' course in a Gymnasium may enter this school. The course covers two years. Two hours each day are given to work in wood, two hours to work in iron, and four hours to study.

An exhibit was made by the *Imperial School of Technology*, situated at Moscow, an institution similar to the Institute of Technology at St. Petersburg.

The *Central School of Technical Drawing* at Moscow made a fine exhibit of designs, drawn by the pupils for painting and weaving and

for ornamental purposes; also landscapes from nature, sketches of animals from nature, copies from originals in plaster, linear drawings from copies and from dictation, perspective drawings, &c.

The various exhibits of articles made by the technical schools of Russia displayed more systematic training and a higher order of workmanship than were shown in those of any other country.

Industrial schools similar to those of France and Russia are established in every city of importance throughout Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, and Italy.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

England has done less than the Continental nations in the establishment of trade schools. In fostering schools of industrial art, however, no nation has done more. At the London Exhibition of 1851 it was revealed that England was far behind her great rival nations upon the Continent in the production of articles requiring skilled labor and taste. This was acknowledged by judges of her own appointment. Convinced of her inferiority, she set herself vigorously at work to recover what she had lost. Her first act was the establishment of the South Kensington School. So rapidly was instruction in art as applied to industry provided for and diffused among the laboring classes, that within ten years after the founding of this noble institution there were in successful operation no less than 125 branch schools in different parts of the kingdom, in which instruction in industrial art was given to many thousand pupils. The results of this effort to give to England's artisans and workmen the same educational advantages those upon the continent received were manifest at the next great World's Exposition, held in Paris in 1867. Instead of being next to the bottom in artistic production, she took an honorable rank among the nations which had hitherto so far surpassed her. This marvellous advance, made since 1851, stimulated France, Germany, and other nations to improve and increase their already renowned art and trade schools. But England was not yet satisfied. She sent a commission of workmen to the Exposition of 1867, and the reports made, although admitting that their country took a much higher rank in artistic productions than she did at the Exhibition of 1851, showed that she was not yet fully abreast of other nations. Mr. John Randall, one of the commissioners, said:

When we come to high class ornamentation in iron, earthenware, china, or glass the superiority of French art is obvious. As long as we confine ourselves to geometrical forms in hammering, pressing, turning on the lathes, or printing on the surface, we have no difficulty in holding our own; but where an intellectualism is concerned, or a free educated hand is required in decoration, our deficiencies become apparent.

With characteristic energy she founded more schools of technical art, increased her appropriations for their support, and enlarged her museums. On the South Kensington School of Art and Science she has expended \$6,000,000, and \$500,000 are annually appropriated for the

support of this institution and its branch schools and classes. The wisdom of this liberal policy was manifest at the late Paris Exposition. Here England, in her industrial arts, was again brought into comparison with other nations of the world, and the showing made was one of which she has reason to feel proud. The exhibit of stoneware made by Doulton & Co. was as artistic as the best produced in Germany. Bohemian or Parisian glassware is not more elegant in form, more varied in ornamentation, or more artistic in the cutting than that exhibited by several English firms.

The English porcelain made by the Wedgewoods, Minton, &c., is not surpassed either by Dresden or Paris. Thus in stoneware, china, and glass—three industries in which, according to the report already quoted, she was behind other nations in 1867—England is now fully equal to the most advanced, and in some varieties of these wares she is superior. The effect of her art schools was seen in other departments of fine artistic work.

These results are directly attributable to the South Kensington School. This school is a grand centre for the education of the people in art as applied to industry. It is a noble institution, and, together with its branch schools in all parts of England, constitutes the most comprehensive and best organized system of art schools in the world. The object of this school is to promote instruction in drawing, painting, modelling, and designing for architecture, manufactures, and decorations, especially among the industrial classes. To effect this object there are connected with the department: First, a museum; second, a national art training school; third, aid is granted toward the training of art teachers; fourth, toward instruction in art in art schools; fifth, toward teaching drawing in art classes, and sixth, toward the teaching of elementary drawing in elementary day schools.

The museum contains objects collected with a view to illustrate the history, theory, and practical application of decorative art. It is the largest of its kind in the world.

The National Art School is at South Kensington. Its object is to train art instructors and to educate students in drawing, designing, and modelling as applied to the requirements of trade and manufactures. The instruction given is of the highest order, and all departments of industrial art are included in the course. Certificates are granted, which give to the graduates authority to teach in any of the art schools in the kingdom.

The training colleges for teachers are schools of art situated in different parts of the kingdom for the convenience of those who desire to become art instructors. They receive aid from the department at Kensington. The amount of aid received is determined in each case by an examination; \$2.50 are paid for each exercise of a specified grade successfully worked by the students.

The schools of art are devoted entirely to instruction in artistic dec-

oration; there are 143 already established. Art classes are organized for the purpose of giving instruction of an elementary character as a preparation for those who desire to enter the art schools. The number of such classes now in operation is 724.

The art department encourages the teaching of drawing in all the elementary day schools.

NEED OF EDUCATED WORKMEN AT HOME.

The demand for skilled labor has increased wonderfully in our own country within the past few years. Until recently our manufacturers have had no higher ambition than to produce plain goods, such as could be sold for the smallest sum of money, and such as necessarily left to the manufacturer the smallest margin of profit. The greatest demand has been for goods of this class, and the producer has done but little to create a desire for anything better. The necessity for goods which are intended for service only will always continue, but there is a rapidly increasing number of our people who require not only that an article purchased shall be serviceable but that it shall be an object of beauty also. Their houses must be elegant as well as comfortable. The furniture must be in style; the carpets, curtains, upholstery, &c., must all be in harmony; the porcelain, the glass, and the silverware must be graceful in form and rich in ornamentation.

How shall this demand be satisfied? What is our true policy? Shall our manufacturers continue to limit their productions to ordinary goods, and allow to foreign countries the entire monopoly of the market for wares which possess the artistic element? Our workmen continue too much in their accustomed grooves, and for want of sufficient breadth of knowledge are continually making mistakes, wasting material, and losing opportunities of trade. Goods of high artistic merit are being imported which should be made in this country; designs are secured abroad which ought to be produced here, and, to a degree which is humiliating, we have become a nation of copyists. Designers come from Europe and occupy places in our manufacturing establishments at good wages which ought to be filled by our own people. With rare exceptions, the skilled workmen and artisans in this country are foreigners. What we need is a style of ornamentation for the goods we produce which shall be original and which shall have characteristics peculiar to this country. This we cannot hope for till we give our workmen an opportunity to acquire a technical education. The importance of establishing technical schools in this country, similar to those in Europe, must be apparent to all who have given any attention to the subject. Without such schools, it is impossible for us to enter into successful competition with other nations. We have the enterprise and capital necessary to produce goods as fine as can be made in any country. What was said of England fifteen years ago as to her inferiority to other nations in artistic productions is true of America to-day. If we, how-

ever, are as wise as England has been, in establishing schools of art and industry, we can make equally rapid strides, and what is said of England to-day may fifteen years hence be equally true of our own country.

We need skilled labor, and skilled labor must be educated. There are instances where ignorant persons have become skilled workmen, but they are rare. The rule is that the ignorant constitute our rude workmen, while those whose minds have been disciplined and trained as well as their hands become skilful.

The introduction of machinery is producing a revolution in all the ordinary trades. Whatever can be done without brains is being done by the brainless machine. For all kinds of work so uniform in its character that there is no occasion for the exercise of discrimination and judgment, the machine can do much better than man. It is uniform in its movements, and the results are uniform. The machine does not lessen the demand for labor; it only changes the character of that labor. It makes labor more dignified and respectable. It does that which it requires simply brute force to accomplish, and leaves for man only that which calls for the exercise of his superior mind. One machine may be made to do the work of several men. If these men are grossly ignorant, the chances are they will be unable to adapt themselves to this change of circumstances by doing some other kind of work, and thus, because of their ignorance, they are thrown out of employment. That machine, however, has created a demand for at least an equal number of workmen, but they must possess more intelligence and more skill. It came into existence through the inventive genius of a superior mind; it was made by skilful workmen; it requires intelligence to tend it and keep it in repair; some one must prepare the work for it, and some one must come after to finish, care for, and dispose of the product of its movements.

The use of machinery must increase until every species of labor which requires simply physical strength, without intelligence, will be done by some combination of the mechanical forces. The better portion of the laboring class, instead of regretting this change, should rejoice to see it brought about. It is only rude, uneducated labor which has anything to fear, and if we can convert this into that which is skilled and educated, we have taken from labor that which degrades and given to it that which dignifies. The laborer who shows you in the article he produces the stamp and evidence of his own intelligence, if that which he has made is the result, in some measure, of his own thoughts and genius, commands your respect. What he has made has been a source of pleasure to him, and he takes pride in the thought that it will be a source of gratification to others.

That system of education is best which trains the hand to some useful employment and the mind to intelligent activity. Headwork and handwork should go together. We need scholarly workmen as well as expert scholars. When the fingers become obedient to the will of a presiding

intelligence, they are the interpreters of thought. It is essential to the highest prosperity of the country that workmen shall advance in intelligence with all other classes in the community. In this connection the important question arises, How shall we supply the demand for skilled labor?

APPRENTICESHIP.

Apprenticeship as it was known in this country twenty years ago now scarcely exists. The American youth are not learning trades. The decay of apprenticeship is undoubtedly due to the fact that, as a system, it alone is not of such a character as to furnish skilled workmen. The principal reasons are the following:

First. The young man seeking to learn a trade may be apprenticed to an inferior workman, and the pupil, like the teacher, becomes a bungler. If the master is not a skilful workman, it is scarcely within the range of possibilities that those placed in his charge will become such.

Second. The employer is frequently too much engrossed in the general management of his business to give much attention to the training of the apprentice, and the journeyman frequently entertains a feeling of jealousy. He does not consider that he is under any obligation to teach his own peculiar methods and thus increase competition with himself. Thus the apprentice is left too much to himself. He acquires bungling ways of doing his work, and these ways not being corrected become habits.

Third. If the apprentice becomes skilful in doing any particular kind of work belonging to the trade he is learning, the master is likely to keep him busy at this, because he finds it more profitable, and thus other operations are neglected.

Fourth. The apprentice receives no mental training. As has already been remarked, to make a skilful workman the mind must be educated as well as the hands. The educated workman requires little supervision; he readily comprehends instruction; he reads valuable works pertaining to his line of business; he adopts new methods with ease; he knows the nature of the material with which he works; he has a clear comprehension of the results he desires to accomplish, and his efforts are directed by intelligent judgment.

Apprenticeship is almost as much a thing of the past in Europe as in this country. There, however, something better has taken its place. Schools are everywhere established where the trades are taught. These schools are adapted to the industrial wants of the localities where they are situated. There is scarcely a city or town in Europe in which there is one prevailing industry that has not its school where that specialty is taught. There are schools for weaving, for glass making, for pottery making; for carpenters, for machinists, for cabinet makers, for clock and watch makers, for lace makers, for jewelers, &c., through the entire range of industries. In these schools a portion of the time is given to labor, under the constant supervision of skilled workmen, and a portion

to the study of those subjects which are closely allied to the industry taught. Drawing occupies a prominent place in all of them.

While the apprenticeship system as the sole means of learning a trade is rapidly disappearing in Europe, a modification of that system to include technical instruction is common. Both in Germany and Austria, employers in all large centres of industry contribute toward the support of technical schools and they offer inducements to their apprentices to attend. It is quite common in Germany for the masters to stipulate in the indentures of their apprentices that they shall attend these schools a certain number of hours every week. An important law prevails there, which makes it necessary for a workman to receive a master's certificate before he can take an apprentice. In Austria the law is such that every apprentice is obliged to attend an evening school for technical instruction at least one year during his term of indenture. A similar division of the time of the apprentice between the school and the shop is also quite common in France and England.

The present demand for novelty and variety in design and ornamentation is so great that every nation and every age are placed under contribution. The style of ornament peculiar to the Chinese and Japanese is eagerly sought for; the enormous numbers of articles brought by the Prince of Wales from India furnish almost an endless variety of forms and figures for ornament; the late discoveries made by Dr. Schliemann at Mycenæ have furnished designs of great value; Egypt and Persia contribute styles two thousand years old; Etruscan vases are copied. To adapt all these various styles of ornamentation to modern uses requires ingenious artisans.

We are willing to pay for that which affords pleasure to any one of the five senses; we will pay the most, however, for that which pleases the eye. Addison observes, in one of his essays, "Our sight is the most perfect and delightful of all the senses." "There is nothing," he remarks in another essay, "which makes its way more directly to the soul than beauty." The commercial value of beauty is without limit. The value of raw material is increased in exact proportion as skilled labor is expended upon it in the production of articles of use and beauty. This increased demand for artistic work is seen in all branches of industry, and it is evidence of a higher culture of the American people and of an increased appreciation of the beautiful.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

No attempt, in my judgment, should be made to ingraft a course of technical instruction upon the public school curriculum. Technical instruction requires the workshop: the introduction of manual labor into our public schools would be exceedingly unwise. The period children usually attend public school is between the ages of six and sixteen. Here are ten years given to the public school to accomplish its mission, and there is quite enough for it to do without enlarging its sphere. The

studies comprehended in the ordinary school course are fundamental and important, and should be mastered by all. The mind is susceptible of training sooner than the hands. The child has learned a language before he is five years old, and at the age of ten he may become a good reader. At the age of twelve, if properly taught, he is quite expert in figures; he can describe much of the surface of the earth, and has considerable knowledge of other subjects. But little could be done during this period in teaching the child the skilful use of any of the tools required in shaping wood and iron. The attempt to teach the child a trade during the years belonging to the ordinary public school course must prove a failure. His mental training is greatly interfered with, and nothing is accomplished in technical instruction that could not be done with far better results after the public school course is completed. The child who expects to commence a course of technical training at the age of sixteen, needs all the mental culture in the fundamental branches of knowledge which the public school can give him before he reaches that age.

A child after leaving the public school is better able to choose the trade he proposes to follow than before. At school he may be taught the printer's trade, and after he leaves it he concludes to learn the art of manufacturing silk goods, which he desires to follow as his business of life. It would have been much better for that young man if the time given to setting type in school had been spent in acquiring a more thorough knowledge of arithmetic, geography, and grammar, for they all are more closely related to the business he has selected for himself than the art of printing. Let the public school, therefore, fulfil its mission; let all the children gathered therein receive the best mental training the most competent teachers can give them, and then let them have the advantages of such technical instruction as will best prepare them for some useful occupation in life.

DRAWING.

Although technical instruction requires special schools, there is one branch of study which underlies all the mechanic arts, and which can and should constitute a part of public school education—this is drawing. A knowledge of drawing is important for every one, including professional men as well as mechanics. Its practical uses cannot be enumerated. Little children are usually fond of the exercise, and nature seems thus to suggest early instruction in this branch. It should be continued as a daily study, if possible, throughout the child's entire public school course.

This subject receives much more attention in the schools of Europe than in those of this country. In all technical instruction it holds an important place, and those who intend to be artisans devote one-fourth of their time to this branch. No class of special schools in Europe is so numerous as those in which art as applied to industry is taught. In

Belgium, a country with a population somewhat greater than that of the State of New York, there are no less than 319 such schools. In France the number reaches nearly 1,000. In Paris there are several hundred. Nearly everything in the mechanic arts is made from a drawing. The building, the bridge, the machine, &c., must be drawn upon paper before their construction begins. Not only is a knowledge of drawing necessary for the draughtsman, but the workman must understand the art, otherwise he is unable to interpret the drawings which are placed in his hands.

The artist who produces an original design or ornament, one which pleases the eye, is a producer. He has given us something which before had no existence. That something has its value. A piece of carpet or a lace window curtain with rich designs interwoven will command ten times the price of others which, although just as serviceable, are without ornament.

Not only is the artist needed to furnish designs for expensive wares, but even in the manufacture of the cheapest goods there is a constant demand for new patterns and figures. The lady in humble circumstances who buys calico for her dress and pays five cents a yard selects that which in color and design best pleases her eye. The same discrimination is made in purchasing wall paper which costs ten cents a roll.

That which is recommended as an important branch of study in our public schools is what is known as industrial drawing or art applied to industry. It is quite different from the kind of drawing too frequently taught, which consists simply in picture making. A printed picture is placed before the child, and he is required to copy it. While it is possible that some benefit may result from this practice, it is extremely doubtful if the good accomplished is a fair return for the time expended.

SUPPORT OF TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

Those who are benefited by the establishment of technical schools should contribute toward their support. The state is interested in the development of its industries and in making as many of its citizens producers of wealth as possible. Its true policy, therefore, is to encourage the formation of such schools by liberal appropriations. Manufacturers derive benefit from the labor of skilled workmen, and they can well afford to contribute toward the support of the schools required to train them. Such schools need not be free; tuition fees may be charged, and thus the pupils, in return for the benefit they receive, may bear a portion of the expense.

CONCLUSION.

I am satisfied that we in this country have the best public school system in the world. We furnish better facilities to the whole people for acquiring a fundamental education than any other country. There is no excuse for any of our children growing up in ignorance of the com-

mon or ordinary branches of knowledge. We have good colleges and professional schools also. Any one, after completing his public school course, can avail himself of the advantages of these higher institutions of learning, and thus prepare himself for any of the learned professions. The class unprovided for are those who should become tradesmen in some department of industry, and this class includes a large percentage of the boys attending our public schools. Their school course terminates probably at the age of fifteen. Between that age and manhood the trade must be learned, if at all. They are unable to find places as apprentices, and without trade schools to attend they are left helpless. The consequence is that they are led astray by the temptations to evil ways which naturally beset the idle during this most critical period of their existence, and thus they frequently become burdens on society.

In Europe the educational work had its beginning at the top in the founding of the higher institutions of learning, and the progress has been downward. The establishment of public schools in some of the countries is quite recent. In this country we began at the bottom by first establishing the lower schools for the public, and our progress must be upward. In this we derive an important advantage. I heard it frequently remarked while abroad that the chief difficulty they had to contend with in technical schools was the fact that the pupils too frequently came without sufficient preparation in the fundamental branches of knowledge. In this country our public schools will render important and valuable service in preparing the young for industrial training.

With the establishment of technical schools we prepare this large and important class for useful and honorable employment, and we supply the trades with skilled workmen. Thus the circle of our educational institutions will be made complete, and the obligations of the state to the whole people will be fulfilled.

The PRESIDENT began the discussion of Mr. Apgar's paper. He thought our educators should ask themselves whether our instruction has enough of the industrial element. Can we learn anything from foreign systems? Can we and should we give industrial training in our common schools? Will it be possible to introduce industrial training into our normal school courses, so that the teachers may learn how to instruct their pupils in this subject? Can we, in our graded schools, substitute some technical or industrial training for a part of the present course of study?

Mr. J. M. WILSON, of Washington, protested against Mr. Apgar's opinion as to the advisability of ingrafting industrial training on the common school system, where, more than elsewhere, habits of industry should be taught; he believed that the public school should train its pupils to be useful; he thought ten a proper age to begin this training.

Mr. BARRINGER, of Newark, who read Mr. Apgar's paper, thought it somewhat misunderstood. Mr. Apgar believes that the time given to elementary studies is better spent thus than if devoted to

acquiring manual skill with tools. The industrial schools of Europe are not public schools, as we understand the term, but technical schools. They are not free schools; no one is admitted into them till an elementary school course has been completed. Our schools should not train artisans, but should so guide our pupils' minds as to make them logical, acute, and energetic, and thus fit them to go on into business, trades, or professions afterward. Let us avoid hasty changes; the workshops of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology are an instance of a hasty and costly experiment which has disappointed our expectations. In response to inquiries as to whether there are in Europe schools for the industrial training of girls as well as of boys and at what age children enter these schools, Mr. Barringer said that Mr. Apgar's article mentioned thirteen to sixteen years as the usual age for entering technical schools. There are some schools for teaching girls weaving, lace making, &c., but they are not so common as schools for boys.

Prof. Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, thought there should be simultaneous and coördinate instruction of hand and body and brain; he believed that this training should begin very early in the child's life. Great care against overworking either the mental or the physical powers should be taken; he would alternate a half hour of mental labor with another of occupation suitable to the age and sex of the pupil.

KINDERGARTEN TRAINING.

Mrs. Louise Pollock, of Washington, D. C., then read a paper on "The free Kindergarten and Kindergarten training."

The subject of combining industrial education with the mental training given in our public schools is in perfect harmony with the Kindergarten philosophy, which aims to utilize three years of the child's life at a time when, as a general thing, he receives no systematic training whatever. The Kindergarten attempts to utilize these years in such a way that not only the child's entreaty for "something to do," or some one to play with, shall be satisfactorily responded to, but that at the same time he may also, unconsciously to himself, receive lessons with his toys which are calculated to make him familiar with the first elements of geometry, drawing, &c., together with the first important exercises in mechanical skill conducive to accuracy of execution.

While the general use of machinery relieves man of much drudgery in work, it makes greater demands for dexterity and skilful manipulation in art and mechanics; therefore the most important exercises in Fröbel's Kindergarten method of instruction are for the hands, as they are the most important tool of man. Without this early exercise, the elasticity of the hand is lost in a great measure; the muscles do not gain sufficient flexibility and strength to meet the demands of higher artistic work without an immense amount of exercise and drill at a later period of life, when time may be more advantageously employed in cultivating intellectual attainments. Then, again, nothing marks noble freedom

more than the free and graceful use of the hands and arms; a person with an untrained and neglected body uses the whole arm with awkward elbow, not knowing what to do with it; and the hands of the poor are usually stiff and clumsy, though they serve to earn their daily bread. A teacher of elocution once expressed to me her satisfaction that popular attention is being drawn to the early exercising of the hands and arms, for she had seen young men whom she was teaching try so hard to overcome the stiffness and awkwardness of these limbs that she felt the greatest pity for them owing to their lack of that ease and grace which ought to be the possession of every human being. The necessity for making use of early childhood in order to meet the demand for men and women who know and can do is making itself felt more and more. Fröbel's systematic plays and occupations not only aim at this physical training, but also at the development of mind and soul, thus preventing vacancy of mind—the worst enemy of morality and childish innocence.

So well recognized is its elevating influence on the morals of the rising generation that the Austrian Government makes attendance in the Kindergarten obligatory. The great reason why Kindergärten have not thus far been more generally adopted in our public schools and charitable institutions is the expense of the materials, &c., at first (though we can prove that this is a great economy in the end), and the lack of well trained Christian Kindergarten teachers, as well as the ignorance as to the saving influence of Kindergärten and the great amount of crime and misery their general adoption would surely prevent. This want of information exists even among those whom providence has favored with large fortunes, with which they might, like the family of Professor Agassiz, establish charity Kindergärten.

As I wrote lately to Miss Peabody, the president of the American Fröbel Union, the children of the rich need the Kindergarten even more than those of the middle grades of society, not so much because they also need the mental and physical training given in the Kindergarten, but their children are thrown more into the society of nursery maids than those of the clerk, the minister, or the artisan. These latter children may thus learn at their own firesides the beautiful lesson of self-forgetfulness, cheerful obedience, and pleasure in labor. While to the children of the poor and lowest grades their elevation is in proportion to the depth from which they have been raised, to the offspring of the rich the Kindergarten is the very paradise of childhood pervaded by love, the atmosphere of heaven. But while we are waiting for the public mind to awaken and demand the free Kindergarten, would it not be well to make a beginning by giving to the young ladies in our normal schools (or at least to half of them) three or four lectures a week in the theoretical and practical application of the Kindergarten philosophy, which seeks, through systematized play and occupation, to educate the mental, physical, and moral or affectional nature of the young child with equal care, for are they not of equal importance?

Many valuable reforms have already been adopted in our public schools, and if we should give to the normal scholars the Kindergarten training, they would be enabled to introduce some of its valuable features into the present school system; thus, when the Kindergarten finally becomes a free institution, we should have a corps of trained teachers all ready to enter upon their field of labor.

The blocks, both cubes and oblongs, as well as the sticks, the Kindergarten drawing, and some of the other occupations would form an admirable substitute to occupy the time now given to primary arithmetic. The lessons would not only be more simple and pleasing, but would lead to a clearer comprehension of numbers also. Another hour devoted to the cultivation of the child's moral and physical nature by means of musical movement plays, stories, or learning of verses, &c., would still leave an hour or more to reading and writing, which is enough for a child to study during his first year of school. The experiment of combining Kindergarten methods with the primary school instruction was successfully tried in Allston, Mass., by Miss Susie Pollock, of Washington, who received her Kindergarten training in Berlin, Prussia, in 1869, and with myself is now associate principal of the Kindergarten Normal Institute of Washington. This school at Allston grew to be such a centre of attraction that every available place was filled with little pupils (eighty). But the insufficiency of the remuneration for the amount of work done, without assistants, led Miss Pollock to give up this school to come to Washington, where a larger salary was offered by private individuals.

The problem of expense has been satisfactorily solved in St. Louis, where 50 free Kindergärten are in successful operation. The salaries range from \$500 to \$800 a year. The teachers are not appointed by the school committee, but by the lady from whom they received their diplomas, and who is therefore best able to know their qualifications. The assistants in these free Kindergärten are not paid; they are either graduates or students who are very glad to obtain practical experience in teaching. Many mothers also volunteer to assist, for the sake of learning through apprenticeship how to use the system in their own families. The St. Louis school committee affirms that to have added the Kindergarten to the schools already provided proves an economic measure, not only by inducing habits of regularity and industry, but also because it has been proved that the Kindergarten saves two years of the primary school work and gives two additional years to the grammar school period; an important fact, when it is taken into consideration that nine-tenths of the children have only three years of school at most, and, if they can have the Kindergarten, they will have four or five years of school life.

Let us not object, then, to the introduction of public Kindergärten on economic grounds; for the arts and industries of our country will undoubtedly receive a new impetus, through the taste thus acquired

for symmetry, the practical application of numbers to things, and the familiar handling and use of the fundamental forms in geometry, with the clay modelling, and the second gift, the sphere cylinders and cube, as well as with the play with all the various triangles, &c.¹ There can be no doubt that much of the money which has to be expended for reform schools now will be saved to the State; for the people's Kindergarten will prevent crime, and prevention is always better and cheaper than cure.

Dr. JOHN D. PHILBRICK, of Boston, after alluding to the different extreme views expressed in the two papers just read and during the discussion following, said that he thought it a mistake to refuse to do anything for a child's education until he is sixteen years of age. Referring to the limit of fourteen years of age, often fixed as the end of common school life, he ascribed the selection of that age to the fact that a law was passed in Massachusetts many years ago providing for a census of the school children between the ages of five and fifteen. That circumstance has led many to suppose that fifteen was assumed as the time at which the common school life should end; such, however, is not the case. He did not think that trade shops could be introduced into schools where pupils are not more than fifteen or sixteen years of age; the venerable Dr. Wise, who was thoroughly conversant with the subject, did not think so either. Without applying or wishing to apply what he was about to utter to any gentleman present, he would say that theoretical discussions of such a topic as this surprised him. Is there a single school in this country in which trades are taught? He doubted it. Are such schools common abroad? He doubted it. Last summer he read a long article in a Philadelphia newspaper describing a common school in which industrial trades are taught, the writer intimating that schools of the kind are common in Paris.

Dr. Philbrick also alluded to the scheme for a "developing school," advocated by a Boston gentleman, the purpose of which he could not learn even from those favoring the idea. These he mentioned as theories; he would add that the common schools are often injured by the hasty and injudicious remarks of distinguished men. Some time ago

¹ See "Education by Hand," in Harper's Magazine for February, 1879. "The system in use in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology at Boston runs through all practicable courses, and rests upon the doctrine that the education of the hand is coördinate with the education of the mind. * * * What, then, would be the natural relation of handwork and headwork? Plainly, as the faculty of observation precedes that of reflection, the student in the earlier part of his course would use his hands and his eyes more—that is, would give a larger proportion of his time to any manipulatory work than in the later processes. * * * The public schools give a mental training which ought to make one a better workman who waits until he has passed through them before applying himself to an art, yet the public schools foster also a disinclination to manual labor. * * * Manual instruction as an element in common school education finds a singular alliance with the Kindergarten method, which is also passing through its experimental phase, and demanding recognition in our public schools."

the whole country was informed that Mr. Wendell Phillips had charged the schools with sending their pupils into the world without the ability even to read. On asking Mr. Phillips why he had said this, he learned that a servant girl in the family had been found unable to read. Whether the girl had ever been to school at all was doubtful; but this remark was quite as well founded as many others reported in the papers.

Before making sudden or sweeping changes in our subjects and methods of instruction we need more information. There are great practical difficulties in the way of any attempt to teach trades in schools. The school in the Rue de Tournefort in Paris is an example of faulty theory resulting badly in practice. He saw there boys of twelve or fourteen who were trying to use planes and sledgehammers which they were not able to handle, and weakly girls who were wearing out body and brain in labor entirely unsuited to their age and condition. It was all wrong.

After alluding to various other theories, respecting the non-use of text books, the reform of spelling, &c., Dr. Philbrick concluded by hoping that the department would devote itself to the live questions of the day, such as the wisdom of the common practice of selecting teachers for short terms of service, &c.

Mr. JOSEPH M. WILSON thought the union of industrial with common school education inevitable at an early day, and therefore eminently a live question.

After a few general remarks,

Mr. BARRINGER, of Newark, N. J., continued the discussion. He believed in the truth of Mrs. Pollock's remarks about the importance of Kindergarten training as an aid in subsequent industrial training, but he feared that the movement was, in many places, in the hands of immature and injudicious girls, who understood neither their work nor themselves. He thought the only practicable solution of the problem at present is to advocate the teaching of useful and beneficial things, such as drawing; and he told how, in his own city, the introduction of lessons in drawing, on two days of each week, in place of the usual writing lesson, has so vastly improved the writing of the pupils that it has excited universal and favorable comment.

Dr. PHILBRICK remarked that the industrial teaching in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology at Boston was directed to training the boys to use tools, but not to learn trades; this is entirely practicable, but perhaps not advisable if the funds are insufficient.

Mr. JOSEPH M. WILSON insisted that a school combining industrial with ordinary training is in operation in Paris. The advocates of this scheme wished to train the physique as well as the mind of the child from an early age.

Dr. PHILBRICK said that it is not practicable to teach boys under fourteen the carpenter's or the blacksmith's trade.

Mr. WILSON said that just as class rooms are now used in which to teach reading, writing, &c., they might be used to teach carving, model-

ling, drawing, setting type, weaving, &c. Of course this would be expensive at first; but it would produce better results. Out of 10,000 persons committed to reformatories and penitentiaries in Pennsylvania, 8,000 could read and write; but only 560 had received any industrial training of any sort.

Dr. PHILBRICK admitted that carving and drawing are fit subjects for instruction; he had perhaps not caught Mr. Wilson's meaning at first. The present difficulty is that we do not have teachers or means for teaching drawing, modelling, &c.

After further remarks by Messrs. Luckey of Pittsburgh, Deery, Dixon of Allegheny City, and Maris of the West Chester (Pa.) Normal School,

President WICKERSHAM said that the penitentiary statistics quoted by Mr. Wilson need explanation. It had been asserted in the newspapers that the teaching of the public schools does not tend to prevent but to produce crime, and that most of our criminals have been pupils of the common schools. He had investigated these statements and the statistics quoted, and had found that these criminals who were reported able to read and write could barely do so; many thought they had attended school somewhere, at some time, perhaps for a few days or weeks; surely the conclusions drawn from such data are wrong. He next sketched the proposed State home for neglected and friendless children; this is to have twenty acres of land attached thereto; there are to be shops also. The question of guarding against idleness and crime is one closely connected with the question of preventing ignorance. The old world had not succeeded in solving it yet. He believed that neither the school in the Rue de Tournefort nor that in the Rue de la Villette is a success.

Dr. PHILBRICK said they are not successful as yet financially. The Villette school is practicable, the other is not.

Mr. SMITH, superintendent of schools, Syracuse, N. Y., gave an interesting account of the origin and progress of the sewing schools in that city. The benevolent people some time ago found much destitution and misery; they solicited and obtained work for several hundred poor women from the merchants of the city, but shortly afterward they found that most of these persons had been discharged because they did not know how to sew. To remedy this condition of things, these poor women were invited to come to a sewing school which was organized for them, but this also failed. Then, two years ago, the ladies obtained from the city board of education the privilege of using the public school-houses of the city for an hour and a half every Saturday afternoon; the ladies supplied the teachers, and invited all girls over seven years of age who wished to learn sewing to come and be taught. This work was an immediate and growing success, and has gone on ever since. The course of instruction is from the simple and easy to the more intricate and difficult parts of the art; the success has been most satisfactory. Mr. Smith concluded as follows: The ladies who inaugurated this

work asked the board of education to take up the matter and carry it on as a part of the common school education; but for want of means we have requested the ladies to continue until we can relieve them. I wish you could come to Syracuse and see how this work is going on. This may not be teaching the trades, but it is teaching these little girls what their mothers cannot do to-day; it is teaching them the skilful use of their fingers, judgment in cutting out their garments, how to mend a tear and put on a patch neatly. It may not be teaching them tailoring, but it is teaching these girls to know just what they will want to know when they shall have families of their own. This is the kind of industrial work I favor. I am not in favor of teaching shoemaking, plastering, blacksmithing, or any other trade in the common schools, but I am in favor of teaching boys how to handle tools of any kind skilfully. Now, by the way, I think moulding a good thing to be taught in the schools, as well as drawing, how to manipulate moistened sand and work it into the best shape and form; such things as these are what we need. I believe in making the hands skilful as well as the mind.

The President announced that the hour for adjournment had arrived; and, on motion of Mr. Wilson, of Washington (at 10.10 P. M.), the Department adjourned until Wednesday at 9.30 A. M.

THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, *February 5, 1879.*

The Department met pursuant to adjournment, and was called to order by the president, Mr. Wickersham.

The PRESIDENT. I desire to announce to the Department the different committees, as follows:

Legislative committee.—M. A. Newell, Maryland; W. T. Harris, Missouri; J. D. Philbrick, Massachusetts; George J. Luckey, Pennsylvania; G. J. Orr, Georgia.

Executive committee.—J. O. Wilson, District of Columbia; T. M. Marshall, West Virginia; Isaac N. Carleton, Connecticut; L. H. Duling, Pennsylvania; W. A. Mowry, Rhode Island.

Committee on resolutions.—W. H. Barringer, New Jersey; John Hancock, Ohio; Henry Houck, Pennsylvania; Richard L. Carne, Virginia; J. H. Piper, Illinois.

Committee on invitations.—S. M. Etter, Illinois; Edward Smith, New York; C. E. Hovey, District of Columbia.

Hon. J. ORMOND WILSON, of Washington, invited all who remained in the city on the following day to attend the forthcoming meeting of the school teachers of the District of Columbia, in the Congregational Church.

At the request of the United States Commissioner of Education, the committee on legislation was instructed to examine and report upon the condition, plans, work, and needs of the Bureau of Education.

Hon. William Windom, United States Senator from the State of Minnesota, was then introduced and briefly addressed the Department.

THE NEEDS OF EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.

Hon. GUSTAVUS J. ORR, LL.D., State school commissioner of Georgia, then read the following paper:

Mr. President and gentlemen of the Department: The subject assigned me, viz, "The needs of education in the South," is a large one, and I fear that I shall not be able to do it justice. To acquire the information necessary to a thorough discussion of it, demanded far more time than that left me by the official duties pressing upon me. I have given it, however, such thought as I could, and I shall endeavor to make the best presentation of it possible under the circumstances. In what I have to say I shall speak with entire candor, and the views presented shall have at least one merit, that of sincerity and honesty. The two sections of our common country never will be able to understand each other properly until their representative men, upon all occasions which may bring them together, shall learn to deal with one another in a spirit of frankness. Liberality is of the essence of learning, and true culture has no more distinctive mark than large heartedness and breadth of views. I found this general statement illustrated in the reception given me by this body twelve months ago, and the manner of my reception then emboldens me to open my heart fully to you now.

EARLY PROVISIONS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION.

In order to understand the educational needs of the South, it will be necessary to have some understanding of the educational condition of that section, and in order to take this latter fully into the mind it will be necessary to take a rapid review of the history of educational effort in the Southern States from the earliest times down to the late unhappy war. This is the more necessary as the two civilizations (the ante-bellum and post-bellum) are distinct, and to understand the one requires some previous knowledge of the other. The opinion has had wide currency that in educational achievement the South has always been very far behind other sections of the Union. If what I have to say shall have the effect of modifying this opinion I feel that I shall thereby have rendered some service to the cause of truth. At the time the present General Government was formed, five of the original thirteen States forming it were Southern States, viz, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. All of the other Southern States were offshoots from these, and were, in the main, peopled by emigrants from the original Southern States. In most of these States provision was early made, either by the State itself, by private individuals incorporated in companies, or by the different religious denominations, and, in some cases, by all of these different agencies, for the higher education, including under that phrase the instruction usually given in academies, high schools, and colleges. I am fully conversant with educational effort in my own State, and as what was done educationally in Georgia in ante-bellum times was almost identical with the educational achievement in

every other Southern State, I feel that I cannot better represent the ante-bellum educational work of the South than by going a little into the details of Georgia educational history. Permit me, then, to give a brief educational sketch of my own State. To do this, let me first present succinctly our educational legislation; and first as to the fundamental law: Georgia had before the war three constitutions. The first was adopted in the midst of civil commotion in the year 1777. This made it the duty of the legislature to provide schools for the education of the people. The second, adopted in 1789, contained few specific grants of power and none in respect to education. I find in it, however, this general provision: "The general assembly shall have power to make all laws and ordinances which they shall deem necessary and proper for the good of the State;" and surely this grant is broad enough to cover the most liberal things a legislature could have devised for the promotion of education. The third, adopted in 1798, remained in force till 1861. It contained a grant in respect to education which I shall not quote, but which was always held to be of sufficient amplitude by the friends of liberal educational progress.

Thus much as to the educational provisions of the different constitutions in force during the ante-bellum period. Let us now look hastily into the statutes. Two of these relate to the establishment of a State college or university. One of them, enacted in 1784, donates a large tract of land as an endowment. I have never been able to learn the exact number of acres. Of one thing, however, I am sure: the form of the endowment was early so changed as to make it pay annually the handsome sum of \$3,000 to the support of the college, an annuity which it still enjoys notwithstanding the general destruction of values wrought by the war. The second, enacted in 1785, provided for the organization of the college by creating a board of trustees and a board of visitors, which two boards were to sit together under the title of the *senatus academicus*. This joint board was clothed with large powers and was charged with important duties in respect to general education, the scheme of the act contemplating the establishment of one or more academies in every county in the State, which were to be constituent parts of the college and were to be under the supervision of this *senatus academicus*. The college was not put in operation till about the beginning of the present century, and the grand conception in respect to the county academies never was carried fully into effect. It evidently continued long to be cherished, however, for an act was passed in 1821 appropriating \$250,000 to be invested permanently, the annual proceeds of which were to be applied to the support of these county academies.

Thus much in reference to the laws providing for higher education by the State. About the year 1835 there was a great awakening among the religious denominations in Georgia upon the subject of the higher education. During that year Oglethorpe University, an institution under the patronage of the Presbyterians, was incorporated. The next year two other colleges came into existence — Mercer University, endowed

by the Baptists, and Emory College, an institution under the charge of the Methodist Church. In order to exhibit the ante-bellum work of these institutions, State and denominational, I give the following statistics, which are taken from their respective catalogues :

Number of ante-bellum alumni.

University of Georgia	928
Oglethorpe University.....	280
Mercer University.....	229
Emory College	397
Total.....	1,834

These four institutions gave a partial education during the same period, no doubt, to at least twice the number of alumni enrolled in their respective catalogues, the recipients having been compelled, by various causes, to relinquish their studies before the completion of the college curriculum. They thus gave to their country over 5,500 men, more or less fully equipped for the great battle of life. I have looked carefully over their lists of alumni; and among them I find men who have filled with honor high places in all the departments—legislative, executive, and judicial—of the national and of their respective State governments; men who have shed lustre upon the learned professions of law, medicine, and theology; men who have added to the domain of science by discovery; men who have been an ornament to authorship in the fields both of science and literature; men who have been honored and successful teachers of youth, and men who have adorned the walks of private life. The numerous county academies, too, though not supported by the bounty of the State according to the original design of the fathers (receiving, nevertheless, from time to time, small contributions in the way of aid from the public fund), were enabled, through the proceeds of tuition fees, to contribute to society every year throughout the ante-bellum period large numbers of persons of both sexes with respectable academic attainments. Who will dare to rise up for the purpose of undervaluing this great educational work ?

Great attention was also given in Georgia, during the same period, to the higher education of females. In 1836 endeavor in this direction received its first great impulse by the chartering of the Georgia Female College, now known as the Wesleyan Female College, an institution under the control of the Methodist Church. This was the first college in the United States, and perhaps in the world, to have the right given it of conferring degrees on women. This mother of female colleges sent forth, in ante-bellum times, bearing her diploma 456 alumnae to adorn and elevate and bless society. The founding of other similar institutions followed in rapid succession till the number rose to nearly twenty. I cannot give the number of alumnae of any of these, as the necessary data have not been within my reach. I can, however, make this state-

ment, that I once had occasion to make some investigations upon this subject before the recent war, and I satisfied myself that there were, at that time, in actual attendance upon these higher institutions for the education of women in Georgia upward of sixteen hundred pupils.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN GEORGIA BEFORE THE WAR.

What shall I now say of elementary education? I am well aware that I now approach much the weakest point in our system. By elementary schools I mean schools in which were taught spelling, reading, penmanship, arithmetic, and sometimes English grammar and geography. Schools of this grade were the sole reliance throughout the rural districts in my State for many long years. The men who taught them were often incompetent—being sometimes without natural capacity, attainments, or aspirations—and now and then even persons of bad morals. There were among them no teachers' institutes or associations, no circulating libraries, no educational periodicals—in short, nothing approaching the modern appliances provided with a view to professional elevation. There was no examination of teachers, no issuing of license as a condition precedent to obtaining a school, and no supervision. Every teacher was isolated, entirely dependent upon his own ability to modify methods or originate better ones, and completely and absolutely independent in the little realm over which he held sway. The obtaining of a school was entirely a matter of contract between the person offering himself as teacher and his proposed patrons. The latter were often utterly incompetent to judge of the teacher's qualifications, and hinged their acceptance or rejection of him solely upon the rates at which he offered his services. A vivid picture of one of the more harmless of this class of "old field school-masters," as they were called, is drawn in the person of Michael St. John, in the "Georgia Scenes," a book of infinite humor, written by my venerated and revered preceptor, Hon. Augustus B. Longstreet; while a type of the more brutal class is given us in the character of Israel Meadows, of the celebrated Philemon Perch Papers, of which Col. Richard M. Johnston, now of Pen Lucy Academy, near Baltimore, is the author.

The State did not propose to make even these inferior schools free. I have already mentioned the fact that the sum of \$250,000 was set apart in 1821 as an academic fund. The same amount was appropriated in the same statute for the education of the poor, which, added to a former appropriation of \$200,000 for the same purpose, made the sum of \$450,000. This large fund (large for that period) was invested and the annual proceeds, amounting to from \$20,000 to \$30,000, were devoted to the payment of the tuition of poor children. It was not the policy to establish separate schools for these indigent children. Such teachers of the academies and of the inferior schools that I have already sketched as were willing to submit to an examination, which was often a mere matter of form and conducted by incompetent examiners, were

entitled, if approved, to receive their pro rata of the public fund for teaching any children adjudged by certain magistrates as belonging to the class known as "poor scholars," who may have entered their schools. I need not say to this audience that this so-called system had no system in it, that it was full of defects, and that it was lacking in a hundred of the elements that make up an efficient public school system. Still it answered a valuable purpose in its day. It placed the elements of an imperfect English education within reach of the entire white population, among whom the means of comfortable support were so general as to be well nigh universal. You will better understand this declaration when I tell you that I have spent my entire life in Georgia, and up to the late war I never met, to the best of my recollection, in city, town, village, or country place, a single southern born person asking alms. As to the comparatively small indigent class, what the State may have failed to do for them, the teachers would most gladly have done gratuitously, for, in whatever else they may have been lacking, they generally had kindly hearts.

The colored people, as is well known, we never sought to educate, and indeed the education of this class was finally prohibited by statute. under what I then believed the mistaken impression that this policy was necessary to our domestic security; and viewed from the standpoint of statesmanship alone, it cannot be shown that the State ought to have provided for the education of this class of the people. Education by the State rests upon the sole basis of self-protection. Under the constitution and laws as they then stood the colored people constituted no part of the body politic, and therefore it was no necessary part of statesmanship to provide for their education. Viewed from a moral and religious standpoint, the entire subject is seen in a different light. We are essentially a Christian people, and the belief that the Bible is a revelation from God may be said to be a national belief. Holding this opinion individually and believing that book to contain the only rule of faith and practice for the moral government of human beings, I always thought that no man should be denied intelligent access to it, and large numbers of my brethren at the South shared this conviction.

I have now put plainly before you the whole of educational endeavor in Georgia in ante-bellum times, both in its conception, as that conception found expression in the different constitutions and the laws, and in its execution, as that execution is represented in the work actually done in the schools of both the higher and lower grades. In doing this I have put before you much more vividly than I could have done in any other way the ante-bellum educational work of the South; for what was done in Georgia is about the same as that which was accomplished in every other Southern State. In the name of my southern brethren I am willing to admit that our inferior schools were indeed *very inferior*, and that in this grade of work we were far behind the older States of the northern portion of the Union; and truth requires the further admission that

in the higher education, we were not the equals of the States that have given us a Harvard, a Yale, and a Princeton. Yet we were not so far behind in this higher grade of education as many persons have imagined, if we may judge from a single comparison, a comparison of the men in public life who were the products of this higher education in the two sections; for, as long as the truth of history is written, it will be recorded that the men of the South exerted a controlling influence in the national councils for more than half a century of our history.

EDUCATIONAL CHANGES EFFECTED BY THE WAR.

I come now to speak of the new era, the post-bellum period. It would be very difficult for me to put before you anything like an adequate view of the changes wrought by the war. No one, who was not of us, can ever be made to realize their magnitude. I think I may safely say that the history of civilization furnishes no parallel. Let us glance for a moment at some of them. A large portion of the population, in some of the States more than one-half, which had been held by the other under the constitution and laws as property and which made up the bulk of the wealth, was set free in a day. Millions of dollars' worth of other property was destroyed; and that which was left, including the real estate, had no exchangeable value, from the lack of purchasers. The entire currency of the country was blotted out, so that thousands of good citizens did not possess so much of current funds as would buy a meal's victuals or even pay the postage on a letter. The business of agriculture, always the main reliance of the people, was put in what seemed to be a hopeless condition by the derangement of the labor system and by the total inadequacy of the appliances of farming left on hand, such as farm animals, farm supplies, and agricultural implements. Thousands of persons living upon salaries or by the wages of labor, often without a week's subsistence on hand and having large families dependent upon them, were left without employment or the hope of obtaining it.

Great as were these changes in our material condition, they were not greater than the political changes to which we were subjected. At first we were told that we must make certain alterations in the fundamental law of the different States before these States could be restored to their former relations to the General Government. We had not been accustomed to make changes in our organic law at the suggestion of an outside power, but we obeyed. We had not been long thus reconstructed till reconstruction was itself reconstructed. The new governments set up were as speedily pulled down, and we were required to form others. The law providing for the forming of these new governments, a law in the passage of which the South had no voice, enfranchised the recently liberated slaves—who were, as a rule, wholly illiterate—and disfranchised very large numbers of the most intelligent and virtuous of the

white population, thus practically reversing, to a large extent, the relative status of the two races.

But it is with the effect of the changes of the war upon the progress of education in the South that I have to deal in this discussion. Most of the States of the South, in adopting new constitutions under the reconstruction acts, incorporated into the fundamental law the public school policy. I must say of the educational provisions of the constitution adopted at that time in my own State, that they were a great move forward. Notwithstanding the mass of ignorance which made up the great body of the convention, it was our good fortune that a few men of great ability and of true statesmanship had found their way into it: to these, doubtless, we owe the wise educational policy then adopted. Not only were constitutions which provide for public education generally adopted, but in every State in the South the attempt has been made to inaugurate a school system under laws passed in accordance with the new constitutional requirements. I propose now to refer briefly to some of the great obstacles that stood in the way of the success of this attempt. I have already referred, in a general way, to the utter wreck of material resources which the South had suffered. I will now give, not only the view of this wreck as presented in reliable statistics, but a further view from the same standpoint of the immense increase in the number of helpless illiterates to be provided for educationally in the new order of things. By the census of 1870, the entire property of the States of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia (Southern States) amounted to \$3,553,757,000; while the census of 1860 shows the same aggregate, at that time, to have been \$5,426,041,724. It will thus be seen that the value of all property in the fifteen States named was in 1870 only about three-fifths of such value in 1860. The population of these same fifteen States was in 1870 as follows: white, 9,275,856; colored, 4,472,634. It will thus be seen that nearly one-third of the people of these States, at that time, consisted of recently liberated slaves, owning little, if any, taxable property. Add to the number of freedmen the number of whites impoverished by the then recent war, and the number thus found destitute of material resources would, in all probability, equal one-half of the entire population.

By taking an area of less extent, I am enabled to make a much stronger case. The aggregate value of property in the States of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Texas (cotton States) in 1870 was \$1,404,487,468; while the same aggregate in 1860 was \$3,294,241,406. The population of the States just named in 1870 was, white, 3,896,280; colored, 3,103,861, the colored population being nearly equal to the white. From these figures I feel justified in saying that, while the taxable property of these States was only about three-eighths of what it had been at the begin-

ning of the preceding decade, the non-taxpayers must have been very nearly two-thirds of the entire population.

OBSTACLES TO BE OVERCOME IN EXTENDING ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

I have now put before you, in the vast increase in the burden to be borne and the great diminution in ability to bear it, the greatest of the obstacles to success. There were others, however, to which I must briefly refer. From the sketch of educational achievement in the South in ante-bellum times given in the first part of this address, it will be seen that we had no such thing as public schools among us. Our people had a way of their own of accomplishing educational results, and in this way they were pretty firmly fixed, and, like all other communities where the controlling element is of Anglo-Saxon origin, they are very slow to make changes. This slowness to change is at the foundation of the conservatism everywhere prevailing in southern society, and, when not too persistent, it is an invaluable element of character.

But there was not only among the people a simple indisposition to change—there was a lack of the knowledge upon which rational change is always based. Few intelligent men among us had studied the philosophy upon which education by the State rests, its absolute necessity in order to self-protection, its greater universality, its cheapness, and consequent adaptation to an impoverished people, and its superiority as a result of intelligent supervision. These thoughts are now taking possession of the minds of thinking men, but till this result could be brought about it is very evident that no real progress could be made.

Another hindrance to success was not so much opposition to public schools as opposition to the manner in which the public school policy had been ingrafted upon the fundamental law.

I have already sketched the manner in which the new constitutions originated in the Southern States at the close of the war. It is only necessary to place the facts in this sketch before an audience of fair-minded citizens in any portion of the Union in order to enable them to understand how intelligent, virtuous, patriotic citizens could feel not only opposition but even aversion to a measure, intrinsically good, in consequence of the manner of its adoption. That this was the ground of much of the opposition, I know from intimate association and contact with all classes of citizens at the South.

I now approach another hindrance which has been much misunderstood, and which I am happy to have the opportunity of presenting in a truthful light before an audience like this. The hindrance to which I allude was the presence among us of so large an element of persons of African descent. It has been thought by many people at the North that the white people of the South entertain feelings of actual hostility toward this race of people. You will allow me to say, in all candor, that no greater mistake has ever been made. It is true that this feeling has prevailed to some extent among the more ignorant and illiberal of our

white population; but the more intelligent and virtuous, constituting the bulk of our white citizens, are strangers to it. We understand this people too well and owe them too much to entertain feelings of hostility toward them. They nursed us in our infancy, were our playmates in childhood, and in manhood they were our domestics and field laborers. They watched over us in sickness, closed our eyes in death, and shed tears at our burial. During the four years of fratricidal strife, when the whole South was a military camp and every able-bodied white man a soldier, they cultivated our fields, protected our families, stood faithfully by us in the presence of armed foes, and wept with us over our brothers and our sons who fell in the deadly conflict. God forbid that we should ever forget the service they rendered us in the hour of our greatest trial! You will believe me, then, when I tell you that it was not hostility to this people that made their presence among us an obstacle to the successful introduction of public schools. I will endeavor to state clearly and briefly one or two of the grounds that made them a hindrance. I have already spoken of the general destruction of the property of the white population. Out of the remnant left them from the wreck very few of them were able to make adequate provision for the education of their own children. Is it surprising, then, that they should feel it a great hardship that they were required also to make provision for the education of the children of those who had themselves, by the laws of the country, constituted a large portion of their wealth? This feeling of hardship was one of the grounds of hindrance.

Another ground was a feeling of uncertainty in the minds of many intelligent men as to the probability of ever making good citizens out of the materials which this race furnishes. Even those among us who are now the strongest advocates of universal education understood this people too well to say that there was not reasonable ground for this doubt. We knew that, in all the history of the past, they had never accomplished anything great intellectually. They had never established anything like regularly organized governments, or enlarged the boundaries of knowledge by discovery, or made any valuable contributions to literature, or increased the productiveness of labor by useful inventions. In their own country they had always been mere savages; when brought here, notwithstanding their bondage, they were greatly raised in the scale of being. Contact with civilization and the labors among them of the different Christian churches did much for them; their moral elevation was greatly retarded, however, by a general lack of anything like true home life among them. God, who made us and knows all that is in us, has appointed the family as the great agency for the moral and intellectual elevation of the race. While many humane masters were always ready voluntarily to make large pecuniary sacrifices rather than be guilty of the great wrong of breaking up families, the different Southern State governments made the great mistake of failing to extend over these home relations the ægis of their protection. These

causes had made the colored people what they were intellectually and morally, and their condition, in these respects, afforded, as I think, reasonable ground for the doubt entertained.

I am glad to say that these hindrances, so far as they rest upon long standing habits of thought, upon lack of information in respect to the new educational policy, upon the violent innovations on established modes of framing organic law, and upon speculations in reference to questions of race, have well nigh disappeared. The people of the South have consented to give up the old and try the new; they have studied the philosophy of the modern educational system, and many have studied with approval; they have dismissed speculative theories and have accepted what they now consider accomplished facts. The most convincing proof of these declarations is found in the fact that constitutions conforming to the new ideas are generally being adopted throughout the South by conventions in which men of the old school hold absolute sway, and an honest effort is being made everywhere throughout that entire section to educate all the children, irrespective of race. The greatest obstacle of all, that to which I first alluded and to which I now again refer, still remains, viz, our poverty and the vast number of the helpless thrown upon our hands. Out of this hard, stern fact grows the great, the overshadowing need of the South at this time, viz, more means. True, there are other needs. We need a deeper and more general public interest in education than can be excited among a partially educated population. We need a more intelligent comprehension of our educational situation than can be found among our rulers. We need a much larger and more enterprising body of thoroughly qualified teachers for both our white and colored schools, and especially for the latter. We need very much an adequate number of well endowed, well manned normal schools for keeping up this supply of well trained teachers. To these and similar topics the minds of some experienced educators would doubtless have turned in presenting my theme. But our need of means, the great, the ever present, the all pervading need, which for years past has been resting upon my mind, and blocking up the way to success in every grade of educational effort, whether in the college, the high school, the academy, or the common school, took possession of my mind when I entered upon this discussion; and I could not refrain from such a statement of historic and other facts and such a train of thought and argument as might enable me to bring out this one great need in all the weight of its overwhelming emphasis.

A few more thoughts now and this hour's work will be done. I have said that the people of the South are making an honest effort to educate the children of all classes, irrespective of race. I might have made that statement stronger. I might, with truth, have characterized the effort as heroic. Solomon says, "He that ruleth his spirit is better than he that taketh a city;" if the spectacle of self-conquest in an individual is sublime, what shall we say of the spectacle when a whole people

place themselves in that attitude? And this is the attitude of the South to-day. We have presented our shoulders to the burden placed upon them; but while we have been bearing this burden as best we could, in silence, we have felt, all the while, that it was not all ours. It was put upon us as a result of the war, and we feel that the whole country ought to aid us in bearing it. You are ready to ask, why refer to a topic like this in the presence of a body with no power to act? The men sitting here, and the thousands of intelligent men in all parts of the country whom they, in some sense, represent, can make themselves felt with a body that is potential. It is for this reason that I have touched upon this topic. Having now unburdened my heart of what I, in common with multitudes of the best men at the South, have long felt, I now leave the subject with you.

At the close of the prepared address, the speaker begged leave to make some additional statements. He said he regretted that he did not have the statistics from all the States of the South which verify the statement that these States are now making an earnest effort to educate the children of all classes. He desired, however, to give the Georgia statistics. Public schools were first put in operation, in that State, in 1871. In 1872 the school work was interrupted in consequence of a previous misapplication of the school fund. There have been enrolled in the schools in the successive years since the beginning of the work as follows:

Year.	White pupils.	Colored pupils.	Total.
1871.....	42,914	6,664	49,578
1873.....	63,922	19,755	83,677
1874.....	93,167	42,374	135,541
1875.....	105,990	50,358	156,348
1876.....	121,418	57,987	179,405
1877.....	128,296	62,330	190,626
1878.....	138,000	73,000	211,000

In the cities, the schools are kept in operation for ten months of the year. In the rural districts, he regretted to say that they are kept open only for three months; and the school fund is so small as to be inadequate to pay all the expenses of even this short term.

Dr. PHILBRICK hoped that Dr. Orr's paper would be referred to the committee on legislation with a view to bringing the matter to the attention of Congress, which is the only source from which help for the South in this emergency is possible.

The PRESIDENT suggested that Dr. Orr's paper should be printed and widely distributed by the Bureau of Education.

Hon. JOHN HANCOCK, LL. D., superintendent of the Dayton (Ohio

The following revision of the remarks of Dr. Harris was received too late for use at the proper time. It is therefore inserted in its present shape :

HON. WILLIAM T. HARRIS, LL. D., of St. Louis, said: I did not come prepared to make a speech. I must say, though, that I feel a deep interest in the paper of Dr. Orr. I paid a visit last summer, and it was my first visit, to Georgia, to attend the State meeting of teachers. I also visited Tennessee, and had a great many talks with men who identify themselves with education in the State, and I have done considerable thinking on this subject myself. Now, I am thoroughly in favor of local legislation. Every place should govern itself in so far as its interests can be bounded by the lines of locality. As soon as these extend beyond its boundaries and become common interests, then it must be governed by the laws of the whole nation. A locality may govern itself as far as its own interests are concerned; but as the interests become more general in character, it must be governed by the will of the larger community; and I think the Government could not do a wiser or a better thing than to determine the policy of all the States in reference to education. The great point is that Congress shall take all its lands now on hand and hereafter to be obtained and devote the proceeds therefrom to the creation of an educational fund, under the control of the United States, the fund then to be divided among the States in proportion to the amount of illiteracy in them; and, since the effects of the war have entailed so much illiteracy upon the Southern States, let them get the largest proportion of the fund. This educational interest is one that affects the whole country, and it should be settled in a national way.

Dr. HARRIS. I would support that motion, and desire to point out in what respect we need a correction of the schedule on which the census is based. General Francis A. Walker, who has had the census in charge, is well known to be a competent man for the position. He has prepared very interesting tables in respect to the sociology of the United States and other important matters. But there is one direction in which his labors could be made much more available to us in our school interests, and that is in the way of furnishing us the means of correcting local censuses. These are known to be erroneous and unreliable for our purposes from many causes. One is, that the census is taken by a man who goes from door to door and inquires of the servant maid for the names of those between the ages of five and twenty-one years. He thus gets his information from an unintelligent and for that reason untrust-

worthy source. Now, the United States census is taken with the utmost care, the schedules are left to be filled out by the household, and there are so many items in them that they insure close attention, the items of ages in particular being taken with the greatest care. The school items call for the number of children less than one year old, the number at one year, the number between one and two years, the number less than three, and so on up to four years of age. They do not give the number between five and six years, or between six and seven, but they give those from five to nine years, then those from ten to fourteen, then from fifteen to seventeen, then from fifteen to nineteen, and so on. But there is no possible way of getting at the number who are of school age in any State by the United States census, because the school ages do not correspond with the ages General Walker has given. What we want, therefore, is that the schedule shall show the ages by years from one to twenty-one, male and female; and not only for the State, but for minor subdivisions, so that we can see the difference between cities and country and the relative growth of the cities. The number in Missouri, for instance, is 39,795, in every aggregate of 100,000, between the ages of five and twenty-one years; but the data for cities are not given in detail separately. Now, in St. Louis we have of school age 90 per cent. of the ratio of school age for the State; we have there more old persons; and Chicago has only about 80 per cent. of the ratio of school age in the whole State—a very interesting social point, showing the rate of emigration of the different States. We took in St. Louis, in December, a school census, and we found that it was taken so poorly and was so unreliable in its results that it gave us fewer children than the census of 1870—that is, 40,000 less population than the United States census. These remarks will go to show how important it is that the census of the United States should correct its schedule for the ages between one and twenty-one.

schools, suggested that southern members of Congress be specially urged to work for the provision desired.

Hon. WILLIAM T. HARRIS, LL. D., of St. Louis, said: I did not come prepared to make a speech. I must say, though, that I feel a deep interest in the paper of Dr. Orr. I paid a visit last summer, and it was my first visit, to Georgia, to attend the State meeting of teachers. I also visited Tennessee, and had a great many talks with men who identify themselves with education in the State, and I have done considerable thinking on this subject myself. Now, I am thoroughly in favor of local legislation. Every place should govern itself in so far as its interests can be bounded by the lines of locality: as soon as these extend over its vicinity, and become common interests, then it must be governed by common laws. So, when it is a common interest with a larger territory, I believe that the United States should lend a helping hand. A locality may govern itself as far as its own interests are concerned; but as the interests become more general in character, they must be governed by larger communities, and I think the government could not do a wiser or a better thing than to determine the policy of all the States in reference to education. This is a question that is now being debated in Massachusetts, and also throughout the West. The question arises whether we shall have a high school education or not. We want Congress to settle this matter. We want money put into a State university. Now, I do not believe you can build a high school and have no connecting link between it and the university. The great point is that the United States shall take all its lands now to be sold and hereafter to be obtained, when we get Mexico and the South American republics under our control [laughter], and sell the lands, the proceeds therefrom to be devoted to the creation of an educational fund, under the control of the United States, and the fund then divided among the States in proportion to the amount of illiteracy in them; and as long as the effects of the war have entailed so much illiteracy upon the Southern States, let them get the largest proportion of the fund. This educational interest is one that affects the whole country, and this matter should be settled in a national way. Now, the most reasonable and feasible thing is that the money should come from the General Government, from the sales of public lands, the money to be divided, as I said before, according to the illiteracy existing in each State. Congress should settle this matter, if it desires to do so, and dispose of it at once. This is a measure that has been pending before the National Legislature for years, and should be disposed of without further delay; and, if necessary, Congress should appoint officers to see that this money be properly distributed for educational purposes and divided according to the illiteracy in the several States.

Dr. PHILBRICK believed that the educational sentiment of New England is entirely in sympathy with the attempt to afford relief to the South. He thought the matter one of vital interest, and worthy of the

best thought this Department could give it. He thought educators need more courage and confidence; if we agree that a thing is right, let us fight for it.

A DELEGATE said that it is often difficult to obtain action by legislatures on educational subjects, because other matters, seemingly of more immediate interest, push them out of the way. He would ask if the southern members of Congress are favorable to the distribution of the land sales fund to the States for educational purposes.

Dr. ORR could speak in the affirmative for the Georgia delegation.

The PRESIDENT and Dr. HANCOCK combated the idea that Mr. Goode and Senator Hoar's bills for the purpose mentioned are intended to centralize the power over education in the hands of the Federal Government.

Dr. ORR said that last year he had conversed with many Senators and Representatives, and was sure that at least fifty of those he had talked with are in favor of some such measure; even some who are extreme advocates of Mr. Calhoun's views on State rights make an exception of this matter, and believe that the whole country should see to it that no section becomes weakened or degraded through the ignorance of its population.

Prof. T. M. MARSHALL, of the State Normal School at Glenville, W. Va., said that some members of Congress are very indifferent to and ignorant of such matters; others are well disposed. The Department, instead of spending so much time over matters in which members are all agreed, would do better if it proceeded to convince the public and Congress that measures relating to education are of vital importance. The only way is to put a concise printed statement before them, or to seek personal intercourse with them, whenever proper and possible, and inform them what is necessary to be done.

Mr. BARRINGER and Dr. ORR heartily concurred in advising the same course.

EDUCATION AND THE TENTH CENSUS.

Dr. HANCOCK thought the Department should do something for the better collection of facts relating to education by the tenth decennial census.

On motion of General Eaton, the subject of the census was now taken up.

Dr. HARRIS. I would support that motion, and desire to point out in what respect we need a correction of the schedule on which the census is based. General Francis A. Walker, who has had the census in charge, is well known to be a competent man for the position. He is preparing very interesting tables in respect to the sociology of the United States and other important census matters. But there is one direction in which his labors could be made much more available to us in our school interests, and that is in the way of correcting local cer

suses. These are known to be utterly erroneous and unreliable for our purposes from many causes. One is, that the census is taken by a man who goes from door to door and inquires of the servant maid who live in the house between the ages of 5 and 21 years. He thus gets his information from an unreliable, and, in a large number of cases, an unintelligent, and for that reason untrustworthy source. Now, the United States census is taken with the utmost care; the schedule is left to be filled out by the household, and there are so many items in it that it insures close attention, the items of ages in particular being taken with the greatest care. The school items call for the number of children less than 1 year old, the number at 1 year, the number between 1 and 2 years, the number less than 3, and so on up to 4 years of age. They do not give the number between 5 and 6 years, or between 6 and 7, but they give those from 5 to 9 years, then those from 10 to 14, then from 15 to 19, then from 15 to 17, and so on. But there is no possible way of getting at the number who are of school age by the United States census in any State, because the ages do not correspond with the ages Mr. Walker has taken. What we want, therefore, is that the schedule shall show the ages by years from 1 to 21, male and female; and not only with reference to that generally for the States, but for minor subdivisions, as in other matters, so that we can see the difference in the cities and in the growth of the cities. The number in Missouri, for instance, is 39,795, in every aggregate of 100,000, between the ages of 5 and 21 years; but the cities are not given in that way. The city of Chicago is not given, but the whole State of Illinois. Now in St. Louis we have 90 per cent. of the ratio of the State; we have there more old persons; and Chicago has only about 80 per cent. of the ratio of the whole State; a very interesting social point, showing the rate of emigration of the different States. We took a local census the other day, in December, a school census, and we found that it was taken so poorly, and was so unreliable in its results, that we had less children than in 1870, and it gave us 40,000 less population than the United States census. The national census for 1870, which was so much more accurate and reliable, showed an increase of 30,000 in four years. These remarks will go to show how important it is that the census of the United States should correct its schedule for the ages between 1 and 21.

After some remarks on the undoubted magnitude of the illiteracy not reported by the census takers and on the necessity of selecting those officials with greater care than heretofore, the convention voted that a committee of three be appointed to confer with the Commissioner of Education and with the Superintendent of the Census on this subject; and Messrs. Hancock, Harris, and J. O. Wilson were appointed such committee.

The PRESIDENT read invitations for the Department from the Book-Sewing Machine Company to inspect the machine at the Government Printing Office; also from Mrs. Louise Pollock to visit her Kindergarten, at 929 Eighth street.

Prof. GEORGE P. BEARD, of the Southwestern Normal School of Pennsylvania, announced that Rev. Doctor J. H. Vincent, of Chautauqua, N. Y., had made arrangements for a teachers' institute for the last two weeks of next July.

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

The President then introduced General John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, who read the following paper:

My friend Dr. Wickersham has requested me to speak of the wants of the Bureau of Education; and, as you know, we have all learned that, when he is our chief, prompt obedience is the only course. I am more than willing to admit the duty of making a statement about the Bureau as complete and frank as possible to the members of this association, to whom its origin and its success hitherto are so largely due.

The administration of the responsibilities of education in the several States and cities had for some time revealed a certain lack in our educational resources; no State or city could supply it; it was not a lack of authority, for there is abundant authority vested in every State. But the need was felt of an efficient medium for the collection of educational data and their generalization and publication.

Something of what was wanted by educators had been undertaken by the General Government in reference to other subjects, especially agriculture and meteorology, and indeed in reference to education itself, by including certain items relating to institutions of learning and illiteracy in the schedules of the later censuses. The new bureau was to collect and diffuse information respecting education, not to interfere in the management or courses of study of any educational institutions. The Department of Agriculture does not direct the operations of the farmer; the census does not shape a single fact that it records; the Bureau of Education does not direct a single school that it reports—it only collects and disseminates information.

It has now been in operation nearly twelve years. Of the three years of toil and care spent in its administration by my able and learned predecessor I need not speak. To the discharge of my own responsibilities I have always invited the closest scrutiny of every one who would take time to investigate, especially of all educators.

The Bureau cannot very well make known its wants without recalling in some measure what it has done and is doing. We should not therefore forget how absolutely wanting in guides and standards were its beginnings. To aid our conception, suppose we go back to the time when there was no national report on education, and, taking up the law organizing the Bureau, examine the requirement for an annual report; and, recognizing the fact that the Office properly has no authority outside its clerical force, let each one of us for himself think what would be his plan for such a report.

SCOPE OF THE WORK UNDERTAKEN.

Shall the plan stop with some one phase of education—elementary schools, private schools, academies, and other schools for secondary instruction, colleges, or professional schools? Shall it, in short, *exclude* any feature of education in the country, or shall it include all systems and institutions properly classed as educational? Evidently the latter, and when the comprehensiveness of the plan is determined on, there remain innumerable questions as to details.

Many of you now here, and others in the country prominent as educators, know how these questions were settled by us nine years ago. We sought to interpret the law by the prevailing intelligent educational sentiment of the country. That sentiment, as I said before, with a unanimity that left in my mind no doubt, could not be satisfied with an annual national report that attempted to comprehend anything less than a statement concerning all the institutions and systems of education in the several States and Territories. ✓

It should be remembered that at that date two States were without school superintendents; that even a list of State superintendents could not be kept corrected to date for even a few months; that there was no list of the superintendents of even those cities having separate municipal school administration, and that there were no lists of colleges, or of academies, or of normal schools, or of reformatories, and so on. Moreover, it should be noted that each week and month brought to the Office demands for information upon educational experience and topics not elsewhere to be obtained, often requiring extensive research and elaborate treatment. In planning the report, we are brought directly to consider the question of collecting material. The States and many of the cities published reports, colleges and academies published catalogues, and numerous school journals and educational pamphlets were produced annually. As the work of the Office was to be conducted on the historical method, manifestly all material of this kind was to be sought for the past as well as for the present and the future; thus arose the necessity for an educational library as a part of the Office. Out of the communications between this Office and the ministries of instruction in other countries in reference to education the foreign department of the library grew.

But when you have begun a collection of books about education you can hardly avoid collecting educational appliances also; often the book without the appliance is well nigh useless to the investigator; hence came the educational museum, and chiefly in a mass from the Centennial Exhibition.

We continually found that all the additional information wanted about education (which could not at that time be obtained and to collect which this Office was founded) could not be gathered from any books, journals, or reports then in existence by any means thus far devised. Bringing

all the statistics together from the several State and city reports as published for their domestic use, it was found that there was that difference in nomenclature and methods of treatment, of objects sought, and means used, that reasonably fair and intelligent comparison and inferences were possible only in a limited degree. To supply this want, the Office, as you are aware, in conference with State officers for the State, city officers for the city, presidents of colleges for the colleges, and the heads of different classes of institutions, after numerous experiments, adopted forms of blanks to be sent out to each; these were to be filled by the responsible person addressed and returned to the Office. Here, it should be kept in mind, there is no authority, no requirement; only the rightness of the act, as acknowledged by all concerned and as deemed of value and interest by them. Moreover the fulness of the returns is wholly a matter of their comity. The result has been before you and before the country these several years. I know of no parallel voluntary contribution of statistical information anywhere. Of the imperfections none can know better than those who fill the blanks and those who collate them. The sending out of these questions it will be seen was in no way an effort to change systems and methods of work anywhere adopted as a necessity of local administration. It was simply an effort to state in the same nomenclature the facts on different points from data which had been theretofore gathered and published, but so published as to be valueless for purposes of generalization. The improvement in the numbers, fulness, and correctness of these replies furnishes some of the most gratifying experiences connected with the administration of the Office. Not a few administrators of institutions and systems have assured us that the effort to answer these inquiries has had the most healthful influence upon the care with which local records are made and reported.

The subdivisions of work and the methods of business in the Bureau must necessarily accord with the Department in which it is an office, and yet it must not be devised in such a way as to exercise any executive authority.

This description of what the Office has sought to do in the discharge of its duty to collect educational statistics and information, so far conveys an idea of what it wants to do in this respect.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE OFFICE.

We turn naturally to the second department of the duty of the Bureau, viz, the publication of information in respect to education.

I have referred to the annual report required by law. This, however large it may have seemed, has been crammed with the results of the process of collecting the information above described, and yet the demand from many quarters is always for more extended information upon many of the topics treated. Often this demand from localities, institutions, or systems requires special collections of facts and separate treatment and publication; hence comes the publication of what are

known as Circulars of Information. The annual report is constructed on the theory that, when occasion may require, special reports will be made based on each of the several tables included in the statistical appendix of the annual report. The Special Report on Public Libraries in the United States is an illustration of this class of publications.

The publications of the Office since 1870, it may be added, comprise 7 annual reports, 2 special reports, 32 Circulars of Information, and 4 other pamphlets. These publications amount to more than 10,500 octavo pages, they have been distributed in more than 250,000 mail and freight parcels all over this country, and to various persons, offices, and institutions in Canada, Mexico, South America, Europe, Asia, and Africa.

NEEDS OF THE BUREAU.

We are now prepared to state somewhat specifically the wants of the Bureau:

First. It wants additional clerical force. A sufficient number of suitably qualified clerks—clerks possessing the high attainments demanded—it has never had. As the work increases, the divisions into which it naturally falls should each be in charge of a competent chief, with such assistants as are necessary to do the work well and promptly. These divisions exist, but the several persons of ability and culture employed in each division are unequal to the tasks assigned them. Work is delayed, information in their hands of great importance to vast educational interests and often asked for by school officers simply cannot be given because there is no one to compile and write it out. The fact is discouraging to the clerk and liable to misunderstanding on the part of the correspondent. The work of one division is compelled to give way to that of another and there is danger of confusion. The Bureau, therefore, wants enough clerical force to do this work promptly and well.

Second. The Bureau wants fit and permanent quarters. The Office has the kindly and sympathetic oversight of the accomplished Secretary who is at the head of the Interior Department; and to him and his immediate assistants is it due that the Office is able to welcome you in the pleasant rooms now allotted to its use. Never before has the Bureau been able to store its library and its museum in immediate relation to each other. Indeed, we have moved five times in the last nine years, each time with great damage to the work and the property of the Office.

The Bureau therefore wants a permanent and fit abiding place, (1) where its clerical work can be performed; (2) where its publications can be received, stored, and distributed to advantage; (3) where it can store its library; (4) where its appliances illustrative of education can be collected and exhibited for the benefit of specialists in education and the public generally. What benefit would accrue generally from one such collection—a collection in which improvements in educational appliances may be received and examined, and where a national system of

exchanges may be carried on—to all grades of instruction and all classes of institutions, and what saving of money, of health, and of life would result in so vast a country as this!

Third. The Bureau wants provision by law for a librarian, and wants to catalogue its library. This library numbers 10,000 volumes and 20,000 pamphlets. The absurdity of making no provision for a librarian is obvious.

Fourth. The Bureau wants provision for arranging, preserving, and exchanging its educational appliances.

Fifth. The Bureau wants a sufficient number of its annual reports to supply a copy to each of its nine or ten thousand correspondents.

Sixth. The Bureau wants means to enable it to publish more Circulars of Information. It has now in hand summaries of the late able report of the French commission to the Centennial upon primary education in this country; also rich and valuable extracts from conferences in relation to education in connection with the Paris Exhibition; also valuable and extensive collections of material in regard to industrial education in foreign countries, all of which is in demand and it is believed would be very useful.

Seventh. The Bureau wants more means for the publication of special reports; one on the growth of college education, one on the development of text books, one on the progress of instruction in drawing and in art education, and others of great interest are already well advanced, and would ere this have been completed, had there been means to complete them.

Eighth. The Bureau wants proper provision for receiving, storing, wrapping, and distributing its publications.

Ninth. The Bureau wants means to enable it to carry on the exchange of educational information with foreign countries. Something of how you have been able to use it in these international relations is seen in connection with the exhibition at Vienna, that at Philadelphia, and the recent one at Paris.

Tenth. The Bureau wants your discriminating judgment upon its works and its wants.

Eleventh. The Bureau wants a continuance of the hearty coöperation it has received from the educators of the country.

Twelfth. The Bureau wants for its work, as above specified, an annual appropriation of \$51,740. The appropriation for the present year is \$30,720.

Finally, in a word, the Bureau wants to do, and wants aid in doing, what no State, nor institution, nor individual has ever been able to do, but what the National Government only can do in this work of collecting and publishing educational information.

The PRESIDENT then announced the papers to be read at the evening session, and the Department adjourned to 7.30 P. M.

FOURTH SESSION—WEDNESDAY EVENING.

WASHINGTON, *February 5, 1879.*

The Department reassembled and was called to order by the President at 7.30 P. M.

INSTRUCTION IN GOVERNMENTAL IDEAS.

Mr. Justice STRONG, of the United States Supreme Court, read the following paper:

I think it one of the most interesting features of the present age that public attention is so much directed to popular education. Not only is the duty of training the young for useful manhood and womanhood more generally recognized than ever before in the history of the world, but there is a great increase in the number of thoughtful men who are considering the best modes of conducting educational operations in our public schools. We have passed the time when it was doubted whether schools for universal popular education may properly be sustained at the public expense. It is now acknowledged everywhere that the wise administration of government, as well as its safety and perpetuity, is largely dependent upon the intelligence of the masses of the governed. This is true in all nations that exist under a constitutional form of government. Above all is it true in the United States. Here the people themselves are the government. They dictate its forms and agencies; they select its officers; they make the laws; they designate directly or indirectly what men shall legislate for the country, what judges shall administer the laws in existence, and who shall execute them. Their impulses, their prejudices, or their judgment dictate what governmental policy shall be pursued. There is upon our statute books no law of universal application that has not been placed there and is not kept there in obedience to the popular will. All governmental and legal changes flow from the same source. It is the voice of the masses that declares what shall be the rights of labor, of property, and of persons. If the forms of government become unpalatable to them, others are substituted. If they disapprove its administration, they force a change. If the question be Shall free trade prevail or duties be levied for protecting American industry? they answer potentially. Shall the law of descent cast the estate of a decedent upon all his children alike? They determine. Shall additional protection be given to the rights of married women? It is for them to decide. Such is the moving power controlling all others in a government formed as ours is, and resting on almost universal suffrage.

It is needless to say, it is of unspeakable importance that a power so vast and so far reaching should be intelligently exercised. It may be admitted that the most ignorant and untrained of all our people would not wantonly imperil or destroy institutions so precious as ours. But even honest ignorance is dangerous. Beyond the facility with which

it may be employed by ambitious, selfish, and unpatriotic men lies the fact of its incapacity to bring to the consideration of the public questions that must constantly arise a sound and a wise judgment. It will it must exert its power; but whether for good or evil is a thing of hazard.

Instead, therefore, of doubting whether the general education of the young before they come to adult years is a matter outside of governmental concern, it is a wonder that it does not absorb more of the public interest and attention, more of the wise care of the government itself. No government can set before itself a higher duty than that of making provision for its perpetuity and its broader usefulness. And, in my judgment, these great ends can be secured in this country in no other way so efficiently as in fostering and guiding wisely the education of our youth in the public schools. Parents will not do the work; except in comparatively rare cases, they never did. In most cases they turn over the education of their sons and their daughters to the public school teacher, and consider themselves thus relieved from their responsibility. What the child learns of geography, of English grammar, of arithmetic, is generally learned at school, and, if not learned there, will never be learned. What the youth knows of the history or institutions of the country is an acquisition not made at home. I do not speak of this to justify parental neglect; I speak of it as a fact. In truth a majority of those parents who now have the government of the country and the preservation of its institutions in their hands are incapable of giving to their children the instruction which is needed to make them the most safe and useful citizens. It should never be forgotten that the children and youth of the country belong not to their parents alone; they are, in one sense, the heritage of the state, its property—as much so as are the public lands or the proceeds of taxation, for they are to be its supporters and the guides of its action. The government is to live not only for them, but by them. It is this consideration which justifies and demands the establishment and support of public schools by taxation and by appropriations of public money. It is this that justifies government supervision of the schools, as well as a watchful care that they accomplish the purposes of their being.

The paramount purpose of public school education, as I have said or intimated, is to fit the entire body of children and youth in the land for good and useful citizenship; to prepare them not merely to enjoy the blessings of an orderly, wise, and beneficent government, but to protect, perpetuate, and enlarge those blessings. And the attainment of this object, it seems to me, is to be reached by three successive steps. I speak not now of moral training, the importance of which cannot be overestimated; it should ever accompany intellectual culture, and it will always be found a helper. At present I refer only to what is commonly understood to be the proper curriculum of the schools. The first step is preparatory yet essential. It is to teach the use of instruments.

without which mental culture and the acquisition of needed knowledge, if not impossible, is difficult. I refer now to the primary stages, such as reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic. Of this step I say nothing.

The second step is to teach the formation of habits of thought, of reflection, and the exercise of judgment; this, I have often thought, is too much overlooked; yet it is a most important step in training in the direction of those results which are to be sought through the agency of popular education at public expense. In the civil and social life of those who now fill our school-houses questions will constantly arise which they must meet and which they will help to solve. Those questions will demand cool reflection and calm judgment. They cannot safely be left to the decision of blind impulses or unreasoning prejudices. Wise, upright, and firm thinkers are what society needs and what the highest interests of the public demand for voters. But I do not propose to enlarge upon this theme.

The third step in public popular education, which is or ought to be secured by our public schools, is the acquisition of that knowledge which is essential, or at least useful, in the discharge of the civil and social duties that will soon fall upon those instructed in the schools. The knowledge which can there be acquired, I know, is not extensive, nor can it be. But it may be and it should be enough to make intelligent voters and useful citizens in every department of civil life. It may be enough to create intelligent homes and family circles where it shall be a subject of conversation, and where, even under a mother's influence, the boy shall be trained into a higher manhood.

The appropriateness and value of some knowledge beyond that of the mere elements of an education are generally conceded. No one doubts the wisdom of instructing a boy or a girl in the geography of his own country and in that of the world. To an American citizen knowledge of his own country and of the whole of it would seem to be indispensable. How can he legislate or influence legislation for a country of which he has no adequate or accurate conception? How even can he read the daily newspaper intelligently without some considerable knowledge of the regions of which it speaks?

So a knowledge of history, at least the history of the United States, is generally and properly regarded as a most desirable acquisition to be made in the public schools. It has often been said that no man is fit for a legislator who is not familiar with the history of his country, with its progress, with its development, with the embarrassments it has encountered, with the advances it has made, and with the causes of those embarrassments and advances. And if such knowledge is essential for a legislator, it would seem to be equally essential for those who make legislators and control their action. It is unhappily too true that members of Congress and of State legislatures, as well as local legislators and executive officers of municipal bodies, are but the mouth-pieces of those who send them, the reflex of the popular sentiment of the locali-

ties from which they come. The utterances of many a country newspaper have caused serious quaking at the Capitol, and they have controlled legislation. How important, then, that popular sentiment and popular judgment should be well advised.

I wish, however, to speak of another subject which I think should be taught in the schools. I refer to the Constitution of the United States and that of the particular State where the schools exist, and generally to the study of the fundamental ideas of government. It is remarkable that hitherto, in institutions maintained by the public for the avowed purpose of preparing the young to participate in the government of the country, those who are there instructed have not been taught what that Government is, what its objects are, and how they are proposed to be accomplished. I think the graduates of our schools, in most cases, when they go out into independent life know little or nothing of the system of government under which they are to live and of which they are to be constituents. Their graduation is like going to live in a house without knowing or learning what rooms it contains and for what uses they are designed. This is the more inexcusable because knowledge of organic law is so easily acquired. Our children have not to search, as in other lands, through the usages of centuries or through musty books of statutes to find out the form in which government here exists, the agencies by which it is carried on, the extent, division, and limitations of its power, and the fundamental rights secured by the frame-work of the government itself. We have written constitutions in each State, intended to be permanent, constitutions which define the purposes of government, distribute its powers, prescribe the mode in which they shall be exercised, assign to every man his place and duty, and declare what rights are inviolate, which government itself cannot take away. We have also a Federal Constitution establishing a General Government with limited powers, though extending over the whole Union, felt everywhere, but jarring in no degree with the governments of the States. The system is complex, but it can be made comprehensible by any mind. The constitutions are brief. Any one of them may be read within two hours. They are written in simple, untechnical language, designed to be easily understood by all. They bear a strong resemblance to each other. It certainly cannot be difficult to instruct our youth that all government which deserves the name is a combination of three powers sometimes united in one agent, but in this country, by constitutional ordinance, kept separate and independent of each other; that those powers are the law making, the law interpreting and enforcing, and the law executing; that to each of these are intrusted its own duties and assigned its own sphere, into which no other power can intrude. What those duties are and what is the arrangement which allots them I would have all schoolboys and schoolgirls know before they leave the public teacher. I would have explained to them what are the advantages derived from such a division

of power, and how under it the order and well being of the community are assured.

I would have every youth learn how each legislative branch is constructed, how its members are chosen, and what advantages flow from having two bodies, instead of one, necessary for the enactment of every new law.

I would have him acquire a clear understanding of what is and what is not legislative power, and what limits have been fixed to its exercise. Such knowledge would protect him against many a possible mistake. It is not uncommon for a community to become greatly agitated and ignorantly demand the passage of a law which the legislature has no constitutional power to enact, and which, if enacted, it would be the duty of the courts to declare invalid. Every such attempt is a trial to our institutions to which they should not be subjected, and which they would escape if the voters of the country understood the limitations of the Government under which they live.

I would have a youth in our schools taught the constitution, province, and power of our courts. Thus he would learn to respect the administration of the law, and with that reverence the law more. So I would have him understand the office and duties of the executive, and thus, in view of these several departments of power, be able to form some correct conception of the completeness and value of the government system.

I would have him also observe and study the limitations of power defined in the constitutions, and the declarations of indefeasible rights beyond the reach of government contained in them.

With such knowledge added to correct moral training he would be prepared for good citizenship, and for the intelligent and useful performance of his duties to the public, and for a wise participation in the government itself. It would make intelligible many things in the practical operations of government that to so many are now mysterious and apparently unreasonable. It would convince of its fitness to secure to all equal justice, domestic tranquillity, liberty, and general welfare. It would deepen and diffuse a more ardent love of country.

I am not alone in these opinions. Many eminent statesmen of the past have expressed the opinion that the Constitution of the United States ought to be a text book in all our schools; and we are told that in ancient Rome the boys were required to commit to memory the twelve tables of the law, the system out of which grew as a germ the immortal code of Justinian, including not only rules for the forms of government, modes of administration, and duties of public officers, but also that body of civil law that in modified condition is even at this day in force over most of the continent of Europe.

Had I time, I might speak of the value and interest of study devoted to the structure of government, considered merely as an intellectual exercise, but I am compelled to forbear.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND INDUSTRIAL DRAWING.

Prof. WALTER SMITH, State director of art education in Massachusetts, then read the following paper:

Mr. President, ladies, and gentlemen: The subject upon which I have to address you to-day is that of "Technical education and industrial drawing," a subject which is comprehensive enough to afford interest to the general public, while it is at present the best discussed theme among professional educators. I am aware that this whole matter is neither new nor strange in Washington, for from the Bureau of Education in this city has emanated much of the most valuable information we possess concerning it; and the lecture, recently published, by General Birney, delivered by him before the Washington Art Club, upon a phase of the subject described as "Industrial and decorative art," is perhaps the fullest and fairest presentation of this matter that has appeared on this side of the Atlantic.

Though I hardly expect to present to you much that is new, I may possibly coöperate with you in the diffusion of some new light on an old subject; hoping that thereby additional interest may be awakened, and that in consequence serious consideration may be given to this question, one which has assumed an importance that may be fairly described as national in its character. It may at first sight be considered an overestimate of the matter if it should be asserted that upon the technical knowledge and skill possessed by a nation depend its safety, its wealth, and indirectly its happiness; yet this is undoubtedly true.

It may also be stated that any scheme of education which does not from the first make provision for the gradual acquirement of such technical knowledge and skill, at such times and in such ways as the ages and circumstances of the pupils necessitate, is insufficient and not practical, and in dire need of complete reorganization. Yet that happens to be the case with every scheme of public education administered by city or State authorities in the United States of America to-day.

I could have made that statement in many more words, and so have beclouded its meaning that you would not be shocked by it; or I might have quoted some one else who said it, and thus have shielded myself from the responsibility of saying it. But I prefer to say it thus briefly, in order that there may be no possible misunderstanding of it, and that those who may wish to attack the statement and its author may know the cause of war, the man to be assailed, and where to find him.

For the reason that our schemes of education have been found deficient and not practical, the whole subject of general education is now on its trial before the public; and it requires no very deep study, nor wide research among newspapers or periodicals, or in meetings such as this, to be convinced that this trial will be completed, and a verdict be rendered by the jury.

It is a common thing to hear sensible men say, as it is also frequently

said in newspapers, that for the duties of real life the children in the public schools are not so well prepared now as they were twenty years ago, or even fifty years ago, though they know more and it costs more to teach them; while the silver tongued orator of Massachusetts has stated that under the old district school system, when a boy spent a few weeks in the school in winter and worked the rest of the year on the farm, he got a better, because a more practical, education than he can get in the country to-day.

The trouble about such remarks as these is that they are true; and that it is possible for them to be true reflects great glory on the advancement of this country in civilization, and much discredit upon public educators and public education, thus lagging behind the progress and failing to supply the educational needs of the country.

For the true interpretation of such statements is that during fifty or twenty years past the country has advanced faster than its school room education, and, instead of requiring for its citizens now the standard of education which was sufficient then, it needs something more in harmony with the educational standard of older countries, and that is something it does not now possess. That the farmer's boy should be fitted by a few months of book learning and many months of technical training to become a good farmer is the best possible argument for technical education of another kind, to fit a vast majority of the people for practical life who will never become farmers; for, as the school-room instruction represented the boy's *general* education and the farm labor his *technical* education, it will be noted that he was preparing for practical life in one vocation from the time his education commenced.

But it has pleased the Supreme Power that in the development and consolidation of this country we should not all become or remain farmers. The products of the soil are the raw materials of the industrial arts, and it takes more people to convert those raw materials into useful objects for a civilized community than it does to produce the original materials from which the objects are made. We are changing our occupations from being largely agricultural to manufacturing, and have thus outgrown the educational facilities which may have been ample for the youth of this nation in the days that are past.

It is from this cause that we are justified in describing our present education as deficient, inasmuch as it makes no ample provision for the technical knowledge and skill required by the people engaged in trades and manufactures. The literary part of our education, which fits for mercantile life and the professions, has not retrograded, but advanced, until it monopolizes nearly all the precious time of youth; while the needs of those destined for the trades and manufactures are ignored in our schemes of education, left high and dry without aid or comfort, until the name of the native-born American mechanic is a synonyme for want of skill and his work for something that will not last.

There are exceptions to this rule, as to every rule, as in our mechan-

ical and labor saving machines; but where it is not true we shall find that men have become tasteful or skilful in spite of their lack of opportunities, and not by means of the opportunities which their education should have given them.

The gradual decay and final extinction of apprenticeship to trades in this country have the credit of being responsible for much of the lack of skill among workmen, but it does not account for their want of taste. As a substitute for apprenticeship it has been proposed to establish trade schools, in which the projectors assert that by constant practice under an instructor for two years a youth will become a better workman than by an apprenticeship in the regular way for seven years. I can hardly believe that to be true, for there is something which comes from the experience of making objects in a workshop carried on in the regular way of trade that no hot-house culture in schools alone can give. Yet I should like to see the experiment tried, whether instruction, carried on for a few months only, can be made a substitute for apprenticeships which prepare people for the work of a lifetime.

It seems to me that the true remedy is to introduce the elements of industrial knowledge and skill into the public schools in such a manner that it will assist and not obstruct general education; and then, when the boy leaves the grammar school to begin his wage-earning life, we should provide technical schools of art and science, where, during his evenings, he can learn the theory and thereby improve in the practice of his daily work. This is the only way the mechanic or artisan can be reached, and it is the way he is now being reached in all the skilled countries of Europe. He has to support himself during the interval between 12 or 14 years old and 20 years old, and if we offer technical education to him in day schools only, in that period when he must be at work and cannot therefore avail himself of it, we offer it only to the children of the wealthy in the name of the mechanic. There are agencies enough already for the education of professional men, and their future employment will pay for any investment which their parents may make in their education.

What is now wanted is that the needs of the mass of the people should be considered, and that the most neglected of all, the mechanics, should have a fair chance given to them out of the public funds, of which they are the principal producers.

That a great reform in this direction is necessary seems to be the opinion of all educators whose experience and observation have been extended beyond the immediate surroundings of home. How to make this necessity evident to the public, and bring it about without injury to that which is good in present schemes, is the problem of our day. This is preëminently a period in which to take a broad survey of the educational field, especially from the economic aspect, and incidentally, also, from the standpoint of progress.

The times are hard; commercial and financial distress presses heavil

in every direction, and the necessity for economy holds in its relentless grasp every item of public expenditure, which it is subjecting to the most rigid scrutiny. All this is auspicious. Economy is the parent of honesty, and it is the best possible good fortune that the system of public education of this country is receiving a thorough economical purging.

It is not from any *lack* of education that complaints are being made, and the question therefore arises, whether the education is of the right sort, and whether the people who most need it obtain what they want. And true economy, which is always far seeing, cannot afford to be niggardly. The farmer does not regard the outlay on his seed corn as an extravagant expenditure so much as a necessary investment; for he remembers that "there is that scattereth and yet increaseth, and there is that withholdeth more than is meet, and yet it tendeth to poverty."

Let us see to what extent this educational scattering is carried on and what comes of it.

In the Eastern, Middle, and Western States there was expended last year the sum of about \$70,000,000 for public education. What was this vast sum expended for, what were the results aimed at, and what did the public get for its money?

These are practical, common sense questions, and their consideration is pertinent in a meeting like this. Nor can we blink the issues they involve; for, in face of such an expenditure, the people who are toiling with their heads or their hands, and who in these distressed times are straining their utmost to make both ends meet, surely have a right, in face of such heavy taxation, to ask what it is all for, and to see if they are really getting their money's worth.

Every educator should welcome these inquiries. Certainly it behooves every one who is engaged in directing the features and in administering the provisions for maintaining public education carefully to study the subject in the light of present experience. From such a study he will be able to answer these inquiries intelligently, and also be able, during this period of depression, while the economical knife is being laid so closely to public expenditure, to direct public opinion so that no harm shall come to necessary and fundamental features of public education.

I am free to state that there has been a great deal of sentimentalism about this subject. Because it is, perhaps, the most important and indefinite single subject with which a community or a state has to deal, it not unfrequently happens that it gets straddled by theoretical hobby riders, who make of conventions such as this the Epsoms or Jerome Parks wherein pet theories are made to show their paces.

Being a specialist myself, I know that I run the risk of being considered one of these self same hobby riders; but I repel the insinuation, for my interest in the whole subject of national education is infinitely greater than my anxiety for any detail in it.

It is true that I am engaged, professionally, in promoting one particular branch of education. At the same time, I wish to make the

fact clear that in urging the importance of technical education and industrial drawing I place its consideration not alone on the grounds of its special or exceptional character, but rather on the basis of its great and economical value in general education and in practical life.

As the subject of education has been so much discussed of late, and as there is such a contrariety of opinion offered concerning what its features and aims should be, it may be wise to take a few soundings, in order to see where we are.

For the purpose, then, of getting at a few points of general agreement, let me ask, What is understood by education, and particularly by public education? I think the answer that would come to such a question, especially from the States to which I have referred, which have taxed themselves \$70,000,000 for its support the last year, would be, that *education is the fitting of youth for the occupations of adult life and the duties of good citizenship*; and it seems to me that we should have in such an answer one that practically covers the whole question; and yet, simple as this answer is, self evident, indeed, as it appears, I observe in the discussion now going forward that it is extremely difficult for educators to defend the present system of education, particularly against the charge of its want of practical character, in any way that commends itself to the common mind by its explicitness and clearness.

I am aware that very many eloquent and scholarly essays have been written in behalf of the present system; but the discussion has been clouded by the use of many phrases not understood by the public, such as "the developing of the mental and moral faculties of youth," "the broadening of their intellectual powers," and others of that sort; while the virtues of "disciplinary studies" and "culture studies" are also enlarged upon. By such treatment, the direct and simple object of education has become enveloped in an æsthetic mist of fine phrases to such an extent that it appears to plain and honest minded folks as decidedly too much set up in character and as hardly belonging to the toiling masses. Consequently, it is being vigorously attacked for its apparent want of practicality on the one hand and its undue expensiveness on the other.

As an educator and as an advocate of the broadest possible education for all classes, I am glad to see these attacks made. Every true educator should welcome them. We cannot have too much discussion, and one of the effects of this present widespread interest, I have no doubt, will be the explosion of many educational theories which are now so boldly advanced, the abandonment of the present narrow and over literary schemes, and the establishment, on a firm basis, of a system of education which shall meet the needs of the workingman and the mechanic, the producers of industrial wealth, and which shall prepare others to appreciate the skilled products of the country.

When the people see clearly and understand intelligently the close relationship of the practical education offered them to success in all

conditions of life, they will not suffer it to be hampered or curtailed for want of sufficient support.

It is, perhaps, the first duty of educators to make clear the practical features of the educational ideas they advance. Holding this opinion, I beg to submit to your consideration some general points in regard to the scope and character of public education which I regard as fundamental.

I assume it agreed that public education in this country must tend toward a preparation for the occupations of adult life and the performance of the duties of good citizenship. This being granted, our first step is to see what the general occupations of adult life are, for which education can be an elementary preparation, and, second, what are the duties of good citizenship which elementary education can promote.

In the first place, then, let us take a broad view of what the general occupations of adult life are:

First. We have those who are engaged in producing food and raw materials of industrial arts, animal, vegetable, and mineral. These are the producers of natural wealth.

Secondly. We have those who are engaged in using the raw materials produced by the first class, as a basis on which to expend their skill and taste in the manufacture of objects for the comfort and pleasure of mankind. These are the producers of industrial wealth.

Thirdly. We have those who are engaged in trade, finance, and transportation. These are the distributors of the wealth produced by the first two classes, but are not themselves the producers of wealth.

Fourthly. We have those engaged in military, naval, and political service. These are persons employed for the protection of social and political order.

Fifthly. We have those engaged in the professional occupations, such as lawyers, clergymen, physicians, and teachers. These are employed in ministering to the legal, religious, physical, and educational wants of all classes.

Sixthly. We have those engaged in personal or domestic service.

You will observe that it is the persons engaged in the first two classes of occupation that are the real producers of wealth, while the others are maintained by occupations growing out of its distribution or by professional or political occupations growing out of the necessity for protection to the whole social and political organism.

In the educational discussions of the day we do not see sufficiently realized the changes in the relative numbers of persons in these six classes that have been made in recent years; nor are educators sufficiently alive to the necessary changes in the scope of public education thereby entailed.

What, then, are these changes? If we examine this classification closely, we shall find that these changes have their origin in and are

principally based upon the transformation that has taken place, within the last few years, in the second group of occupations, those of the industrial classes. These changes have been enormous; I might say sufficiently so as to completely revolutionize the old relation of these classes to one another. A slight examination of the material and political condition of any one of the leading States to-day shows that its material and political power is centring about its industrial classes, and that, as these flourish or decline, so all the other interests of the State flourish or decline. Indeed, it is a well established economic truth that industrial wealth, in other words a healthy condition of the industrial occupations, is absolutely necessary to the success of all other occupations.

So clearly is this fact recognized by the five great European nations, England, France, Germany, Austria, and Italy, that to-day they are in earnest competition with one another to develop to the utmost the industrial productiveness of their people.

Let me for a moment digress to make a statement in regard to what industrial development consists of. In a manufactured product we have two elements, the raw material and the skilled labor which has been put upon it. Take, for instance, this piece of steel. Its value is, perhaps, three cents. As yet skilled labor has hardly touched it. Fabricated into this form, we have a surgical instrument which is worth ten dollars. Now, what makes the difference in price between these two pieces of steel? The simple fact that skilled labor has been applied to this one and not to the other; and it is the skilled labor, therefore, which gives it its chief value. Take this piece of cotton cloth for another illustration. You have here eight cents' worth of raw material in cotton. This material has been fabricated by many processes, until there has been produced this piece of cloth, worth one dollar and a half.

Thus, again, we see that the principal element in the value of an article may be the skill and taste which have been expended upon an insignificant bit of raw material.

Then, it may be said that the ratio of increase in value made by skilled labor upon the raw material will be determined by the amount of skill and quality of the taste displayed.

This is precisely where a consideration of the industrial element in education becomes important. When we see what creates value in labor, and how little we have hitherto done by education to foster this element, it is time to overhaul the whole subject, using both spade and pruning hook in the operation.

To understand the full bearing and significance of this matter of technical education in art and science, we must consider its influence on human labor and industry; for be it remembered that this whole question is an economical one, not one of sentiment; it has as much to do with practical life and profitable labor as the employment of the locomotive in lieu of horses or the use of gas instead of farthing rushlights.

Let us for a moment, then, look at what constitutes the element of value in human labor.

Labor is the application of two powers: first, skill; second, force. The product is valuable in the proportion as it displays skill and without value in the ratio of its absence of skill. This is as true about the making of a watch, or a nail, or a pair of boots as about the performance of a difficult surgical operation. The skilled workman is the one who produces something of greater value out of the same material than the unskilled workman can, and with less waste of time and material. He is, therefore, a more profitable agent to employ than the unskilled, and his work being more valuable he receives a higher compensation for it, while his employer, finding a ready market, at high prices, for industrial masterpieces, makes more profit on the sale of them than on unskilled productions. The purchaser is better satisfied with the article and willing to pay a higher price for it than for one displaying no skill. So that the application of skill and taste in the production of an object gives (1) to the workman higher wages, (2) to the employer larger profits, and (3) to the purchaser more satisfaction than if the skill and taste had been absent. This is the prosaic and practical aspect of the question, its economical character.

There is another view I shall refer to, though not to enlarge upon. That may, if you please, be called the sentimental aspect, in contradistinction to the practical one. It is this: That the workman whose taste and skill are employed is a happier man than if only his muscles are used in his work. His soul and spirit are engaged; the immortal part of him is influencing his labor, breathing into the work of his hands the very breath of the life that shall never die. Such a man was Raffaele when painting the Sistine Madonna, transferring the image of his own beautiful soul to the canvas; an act of homage and praise to his Maker for life and happiness and a gift to all posterity of a "joy forever."

To the practical people who do not believe in sentiment, I would also like to remark that the Sistine Madonna is *worth a good deal of money*.

What is true about the productions of one workman applies to all who are engaged in the industrial arts, and it is, therefore, equally true about a whole nation. The blacksmith and the maker of watch springs may work in the same material, steel; yet one may produce an object of small value out of a pound of the material, while the other produces many of great value out of a pennyweight of it. So it is with almost all the raw material of the arts, both fine and industrial. A piece of clay which is of less value than any coin in circulation becomes under the touch of Michael Angelo of greater pecuniary value than any coin that was ever circulated; a lump of common earth, that might have been made into a firebrick worth a penny, has been transformed by the great sculptor into a relic that its weight in gold could not purchase.

Though the difference in relative values between skilled and unskilled

work is not so great in industrial art as it is in fine art, yet there is a difference, and it is invariably recognized and paid for.

It is hardly worth while to continue this argument, because no one can challenge it, and one illustration that is typical of thousands is enough. We *must* recognize its truth, and the value of its significance to us is determined by the proportion in numbers of our people employed in the manufacturing industries, and the amount of capital invested in them.

If we were a purely agricultural people, the loss we suffer from want of industrial skill would not be so great as to be formidable, nor would the danger to our commercial prosperity be so imminent as it is. But we are a manufacturing people, with very heavy interests involved in this question, and these interests can only be preserved and developed by investing them with taste and skill. In other respects our people are highly educated and have refined taste, and will not be satisfied with clumsy and tasteless objects, whether of native or foreign manufacture.

We have common sense and refinement enough to want things to look well and wear well, and unless native manufactures can be so made we do not buy them; hence the enormous importations of foreign goods which do satisfy our love of honesty and beauty by their skill and taste. You have only to go into the stores of any large city and inquire where the finest goods come from to find out why a good many native workmen are out of employment.

If the present condition of labor is thriftless and unprofitable, what should be done to insure its improvement? We know what other nations have done when suffering from the same cause. The first thing England did was to establish schools of art in the centres of manufactures; but that did little good, for their influence was too limited to improve public taste. The next experiment was to teach drawing in the public schools and train highly skilled teachers of art, and therein was found the true remedy. The public was taught at the right age for learning, in childhood, and the pupils of the public schools, whose taste had been encouraged by regular exercises in drawing, crowded the schools of art in the evenings as soon as their apprenticeships to trades began and practical life commenced. In 1851 there were nineteen schools of art in the United Kingdom; this year there are nearly one thousand schools of art and art classes, and of a much higher standard of success than in 1851, and industrial drawing is now taught in the national schools.

What has been done for art by the government and the people is insignificant compared with what has been accomplished in scientific instruction during the last twenty years. The regular teachers of the day schools have qualified themselves to give instruction in art and science, and the national school buildings are used for classes. In consequence there are many thousands of science classes spread like a network all

over the country, discovering, developing, and economizing all the native talent of the people.

The French are devoting more and more attention to technical education in the public schools, and last year, while I was in Paris, the legislature passed an ordinance appointing seventeen inspectors of drawing for the public schools of the republic. This was entirely a new measure; but it shows how keenly alive the French are concerning the sources of their national prosperity, and how little they feel that they can afford to rest on their laurels.

To return from this rather long digression.

I could bring before you hundreds of articles exhibiting but trifling values of raw materials, such as iron, wood, clay, glass, and textile fabrics, in contrast with great values from skilled labor put upon them; but I think we shall all agree that the value of manufactured goods depends principally upon the quality and amount of the labor they contain.

Now, if we consider for a moment that the number of raw materials and metals for all the industrial occupations is comparatively few and that the cheapness of transportation makes their distribution among nations common, it is evident that the nation which has the most skill and best taste to put upon these raw materials—that is, the one that can fabricate them into the greatest variety of objects, and make them minister to taste as well as to convenience and comfort—holds a decided advantage in all the markets of the world.

I do not wish to weary you with statistics on this point. Let me say, however, that last year England exported manufactured goods of the value of about \$750,000,000. If we take a safe estimate and say that one half of this amount represented the product of skilled labor, you see at once what an enormous exporter she is of the labor of her people. If you examine the trade of France, you find that she greatly exceeds England as a seller of skilled labor. No one could examine the recent International Exposition at Paris without being struck with amazement at the great wealth these two nations are producing and accumulating by virtue of the skill and taste they are promoting among their peoples.

I think it will be evident without argument that the great development which has taken place in these industrial occupations must affect all the classes who are non-productive, and, therefore, all society.

Seeing, therefore, that it is the development principally in the industrial occupations which constitutes the principal changes now going on in human employments, let me turn from this general view of the subject and ask your attention to a particular exhibit which practically and very completely illustrates the relation of these various classes of labor to each other and their relative importance when considered in the light of education.

I invite your attention to the material and political condition of the people in the State of Massachusetts.

In this State a very thorough attempt has been made to get accurate statistics bearing upon the social and material condition of the people, and the work has been so well done by the chief of the bureau of statistics, Col. Carroll D. Wright, that it is believed to stand unequalled by any similar statistical inquiry.

As these results are important and I shall have occasion to refer to them, I have had them placed conspicuously on this chart, that you may the more readily grasp their import.

Observe that in the State of Massachusetts we have a population of about 1,600,000.

Our first inquiry was, How do these people get their living? What are their occupations?

In this population we have—

Employed in government and professions.....	29, 730
Employed in trade and transportation.....	104, 935
Employed in domestic and personal service.....	424, 289
Employed in manufacturing and mechanical industries.....	316, 459
Employed in agriculture	70, 945
Employed in fisheries.....	6, 656
Employed as laborers (unskilled and unclassified)	52, 179
Engaged in no occupation (about).....	300, 000

Add to these numbers about 300,000 for the youth of the State, and we have a general picture of how this community is employed and the number of children in the course of preparation for the various occupations of the State.

Let us examine this exhibit closely, to see which occupations form the real basis of the State's prosperity.

Shall we find this basis in the first division, in the professional employments? Certainly not. These are not employments which add directly to the productivity of the State. Indeed, these occupations could not exist were it not for other employments beneath them.

Shall we find this basis in the second, among those engaged in trade and transportation? Here again we have secondary employments, mere distributors of wealth, not producers of it. These occupations all presuppose the existence of others around them.

Shall we find this basis in agriculture? Note the small number engaged in this occupation, and as we all know that Massachusetts is not an agricultural State, what she raises in the way of agricultural products must be of an exceptional character, or must owe its existence to exceptional markets created near by. Agriculture, therefore, is wholly dependent upon the existence of other contiguous occupations.

Shall we find this basis of prosperity in this other class of occupations, her servants, embracing over 424,000 of her population? Certainly not; for these persons are in no sense producers. They are those

who, unfitted for other occupations, drop to the lowest level of personal service.

Where, then, do we find the basis of the prosperity of Massachusetts? Here, with these 316,000 workers in her industrial workshops. They form the principal producers of the wealth of the State.

We have just seen that in industrial manufactures there are two elements, raw material and skilled labor. As Massachusetts produces no raw material—save her east wind, which has never yet been utilized in industrial fabrications—it is evident that even her right to an industrial existence rests simply and solely upon her possessing the other element, skilled labor.

This exhibit of occupations, therefore, shows us conclusively that Massachusetts is an industrial State solely by virtue of having 316,000 persons possessing certain degrees of skill and taste.

If we were to turn to the capital employed, we should find the productive capital principally invested in two ways, in manufacture and in agriculture. An examination would show us that the capital invested in the latter is largely dependent upon the existence of the former for its returns.

The figures concerning invested capital are as follows:

	Capital employed.	Annual product.
Capital in industry	\$283, 000, 000	\$593, 000, 000
Capital in agriculture	210, 000, 000	41, 000, 000

To sum up the whole situation in a word, Massachusetts exists today as a State by virtue of her manufacturing or industrial interests. As these interests prosper, other interests in the State prosper; as these decline, all other interests in the State decline; so that you have a community based, so far as its material condition and prosperity are concerned, upon its industrial employments, and able to contribute to these employments but the one single element of skilled labor.

As we are considering this matter in its relation to practical life, and as the statistics clearly show that Massachusetts holds her position among her sister States by virtue of the labor of 316,000 of her mechanics and artisans, it will be easy to see the important bearing of the public education of the State on their occupations.

Be it remembered that it is the work of the hands and brains of these men that holds the other interests of the State together. It is the skill and taste they can infuse into their work, the change they can create in the raw material that capital can bring them, that constitutes the real profit to the capital of the State.

Recognizing this through the urgent representation to the legislature of some of her most intelligent manufacturers, the State passed a law in the year 1870 that drawing, allowed by all to be the common basis of all industrial education, should be taught to all children in the public schools; also, that all cities and towns having more than ten thousand inhabitants should provide classes for free instruction in industrial draw-

ing, either in day or evening schools, under the direction of the school committees.

Here is the act:

[Chapter 248, acts of 1870.]

SECTION 1. The first section of chapter 38 of the general statutes is hereby amended so as to include drawing among the branches of learning which are by said section required to be taught in the public schools.

SEC. 2. Any city or town may, and every city and town having more than ten thousand inhabitants shall, annually make provision for giving free instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing to persons over fifteen years of age, either in day or evening schools, under the direction of the school committee.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect on its passage.

This act took effect on May 16, 1870. It empowered any town, whatever might be the extent of its population, to establish such evening classes for industrial drawing, and required twenty-three to do so.

Though many difficulties were encountered in carrying out the law, there was an evident desire to obey it, and the difficulty of finding teachers was met by the State in the establishment, in 1873, of a normal art school for the education of teachers of industrial art. In all this action there seems to me to have been the greatest economical sagacity. It imposed on the community the task of having drawing taught, and when the cry came that there were no teachers of the subject, it provided the teachers. And the State of Massachusetts, though it may not be doing in all of its parts what the larger cities in it are doing, will be led in the future, as in the past, by the action of its great centres of population.

The school committee of the city of Boston may be said to have taken a national lead in this matter, one that has been watched and commented on by European nations with much interest. Thus, the French commission on the educational system of the United States as shown at the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876, reports as follows:

Scarcely six years ago Massachusetts introduced regular instruction in drawing, and the Northern and Western States are rapidly following her lead. If the last Paris Exposition revealed great advances in English industry due to the art movement developed since 1851 by the South Kensington School, what may we not expect from American activity, stimulated by the Philadelphia Exhibition? Everywhere, already, educators are pointing out defects, stimulating emulation, and they find an echo in the teachers of schools, as well as in the employers of labor. France must defend that preëminence in art which has heretofore been unquestioned. She has enormous resources which ought to be developed by well planned primary instruction. With as elsewhere, it is not enough to have excellent special teachers of drawing; it is not enough to have good courses and good special schools; but *all teachers, male and female, must be able to give the first instruction in drawing in daily classes to all their scholars.* France, which has gone to work energetically after her misfortunes, ought to devote herself to the study of drawing, with no less ardor, and reinvigorate her productive powers at the very sources of art.

I might here say that, in the words italicized, France is advised to do what Massachusetts has been doing for some years, and this testimony from such a source ought to satisfy the theoretical educators who fancy

¹The italics in this passage are mine.—Walter Smith.

that drawing is a merely "ornamental" study. To "*reinvigorate the productive powers of a nation at the very sources of art,*" by the teaching of drawing, is not a merely ornamental process, but a highly economical one. The report goes on to say :

The South Kensington system, so successfully and skilfully imported into America by Walter Smith, is likely to render as great service to that country as it has already rendered to England herself.

The report objects to our use of the lead pencil in drawing, and recommends practice with the soft crayon point. But, as a matter of fact, we use both hard and soft points to draw with, and so are more catholic in this matter than either the French or the English.

But its conclusion is very significant. It says, if certain suggestions concerning the processes of drawing were adopted, then "Massachusetts would leap at a single bound to a superiority in art instruction in primary education to which the old nations of the European world have hitherto been unable to attain. But, just as they are, the examples of the primary and grammar school work shown at Philadelphia are very satisfactory. When one considers that it represents the fruit of only two years of trial, *it must be admitted that such remarkable results have never before been secured in so short a time.*"¹

The works upon which this criticism was made were produced in the public schools of Boston and Massachusetts.

It is refreshing, also, to see that the Boston school committee has not lost its interest in this great question. In its last report, just issued, occurs the following trenchant and incisive statement :

The question of teaching trades in our schools is one of vital importance. If New England would maintain her place as the great industrial centre of the country, she must become to the United States what France is to the rest of Europe: *the first in taste, the first in design, the first in skilled workmanship.* She must accustom her children from early youth to the use of tools, and give them a thorough training in the mechanic arts.

That, in my humble opinion, is the most important utterance yet made in this country on the subject of technical education. And if every school committee in the United States would adopt the sentiment and act upon its conclusions, the one great obstacle to the industrial development of the country would soon be removed.

Thus far we have been considering education in Massachusetts as bearing upon the occupations of adult life in a most important section of the community.

We admitted in the preliminary argument that public education should also tend to good citizenship, and it will be well to inquire what would be practical education for good citizenship in Massachusetts. Good citizenship includes an intelligent use of the franchise and a ready compliance with the laws promoting social and political order.

Looking again at this classification of occupations in this Massachusetts community of 1,600,000 persons, it will be found that in this body

¹ The italics in this passage are mine.—Walter Smith.

of 316,000 workmen lies the chief danger to social and political order, if danger shall arise.

It is not among those who are employed in trade, agriculture, or the professions, or among the servants of the households, that the State needs to apprehend danger. They are all the servants of the mechanic, by whatever name known, and fear no competition, for they never encounter any, so long as their providers, the mechanics, are in full work and can employ them. But discontent and hatred of capital are apt to lurk among those who have to do skilled work without possessing much skill, and have to compete with the highly trained artisans of Europe without ever having had the opportunity of being qualified for the competition.

A man who cannot earn or command of capital more than a dollar a day, has a much stronger hatred of capital than one who can earn three dollars; and one has but to study the labor question conscientiously to see that the more you increase a man's wage-earning power, by virtue of superior skill and taste, the more you increase his respect for social and political order, and the larger is his stake in the continuance thereof.

So we see that the material, social, and political interests of Massachusetts are centered about her industrial population, and practical education in the State, whether regarded from its bearing upon adult occupation or upon good citizenship, should consist in giving the 300,000 youth of the State an education which should have a strong wage-earning power in industrial occupations. Her commercial, professional, and agricultural occupations have long been provided for in this respect; but until quite recently no particular efforts have been made for the education of her mechanics and artisans in the elements of knowledge which bear directly upon their wage-earning power in adult life.

There are doubtless many among her public men who believe that all industrial education is special in its character and should be given in special schools only, after general education has been completed and the workman has commenced practical life. This is a view which has been held and abandoned by the most skilled nations in Europe, which have learned to see by actual experiment the value of teaching the elements of art and science to all their people, from the first day of school life to the last, in the public schools.

There are others among her public men who are awakening to the fact that the future prosperity of the State depends in no small degree upon the skill and the taste which the next generation of artisans can be made to possess.

This is not an occasion, and the time is insufficient, to dwell upon all the educational, material, and political considerations that are presented in this exhibit. I will only add that no one can study the results displayed in Colonel Wright's admirable report without seeing most conclusively that it is the kind of education given in the public schools of

the State for the next few years that will determine largely her future material, political, and social condition.

I have dwelt upon this practical exhibit in Massachusetts because it seems to me a very instructive one for an educator to study. It gives some excellent material with which to cope with theoretical, sentimental educators on the one hand and narrow minded or ignorant taxpayers on the other.

To the educational essayist, who can see in education only a process of intellectual training, and who loves to dwell on the humanities and all the various aspects of æsthetic culture, and who decries all education that has not for its object the broadening of the intellectual powers of pupils or disciplining their minds, whatever these terms may mean, these statistics speak a practical admonition indeed. They show that an education directed solely for such purposes would be immediately practical to but comparatively few people in the State, while it would be incomplete as a fundamental wage-earning education for the real productive workmen who form so large a part of the adult population.

To the taxpayer, groaning under the expense of the present educational arrangements and blindly advocating a return to the three R's, this exhibit is equally instructive, for it shows him that education to be practical, that is, wage-earning, must be largely industrial; in other words, it must contain certain features for which that which we may call a three-R's power education does not provide at all.

What is true of Massachusetts is true to a greater or less extent of the Eastern, Middle, and of many Western States, and will become more true of every State day by day and year by year. Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania are following in precisely the same line of development as Massachusetts, and already their industrial interests are increasing beyond all others; while in Ohio so careful and observant a statesman as General Garfield has pointed out that the State has passed the period of her agricultural development, and her increase in wealth and population is now to be found in her industrial counties.

In this connection I cannot refrain from calling attention to the earnest words of Governor McClellan, of New Jersey, in his recent message, in which he emphasizes the importance of making the public education of the State more industrial in character, to meet the developing wants of the people. Among other things, he says:

It is now universally recognized that industrial drawing, *i. e.*, drawing as applied to the arts and trades, not landscape drawing, is the basis which underlies the vast majority of the pursuits of our people, and that it can be profitably made a part of the course in our public schools. * * * We need technical schools in various parts of the State. For instance, in South Jersey one is required in the interests of the glass-makers of that region; in Paterson they are needed in the interests of the silk and cotton factories and the great machine shops of the city. In Trenton a school is needed immediately for the benefit of the potteries, where boys and girls may be taught modelling, designing, and decorating, as well as the making of pottery itself;

for the potteries of Trenton have now reached a point where they daily suffer from the lack of a sufficient number of skilled employés, and if properly encouraged they will soon develop into one of the largest and most important interests of the country.

I might here suggest to Governor McClellan that, if Trenton cannot find a Flaxman to transform her clay into gold, she can at any rate do what Lambeth has done, establish a school of art under trained masters, and thus educate the workers employed in her potteries; and the State of New Jersey can make this an equal success by requiring drawing to be taught in her public schools to every child, as Massachusetts has done; thus offering an outlet for the talent of every child, creating a market for her manufactures, and making of Trenton the Lambeth and Etruria of the United States.

By availing themselves of the pioneer action of Massachusetts in creating teachers of industrial art, just as Massachusetts availed herself of the same action taken by England, every State in this Union may, any day it chooses, add the elements of industrial education to the instruction given in her public schools.

The United States has not far to seek for a market for her skilled industries when she possesses them. She is her own market, and one that England and France find very profitable. She has only, therefore, to reach forth her *hand* and take it; but it must be done by her hand, and not by her head alone.

It was said of old that—

Nuremberg's hand
Goes through every land.

The time may come, though it can come only in the way I have suggested, when the skilled hand of America may go through every land: and that will be a vast improvement upon keeping our unskilled hands in our own pockets, going through our own purses to pay for our want of skill.

I am well aware that, in claiming that public education should be based more than hitherto upon an industrial wage-earning power for the masses, I lay myself open to the criticism of those who hold to certain disciplinary and culture views as main considerations in education. They must, however, admit that at present people are dissatisfied with the education given in the public schools. This is a fact which cannot be ignored; and, if we probe the discontent to the bottom, we shall find it resting on the conviction that the education of to-day does not sufficiently provide for the adult life of all classes; and in pleading for more attention to industrial skill and taste I have only indicated a practical remedy which has been found successful elsewhere. If the advocates of *culture above skill* have any more likely remedy to propose, the public will be glad to hear it. I yield to no one in advocacy of the broadest possible æsthetic training in public schools, but I hold it to be our first duty to try to fit our youth to maintain themselves when they arrive

at adult age, if need be, by the work of their hands, so as to be prepared for the competition which is pressing harder every day, and thus protect themselves from being superseded by machinery, which is gradually monopolizing all the labor that requires no skill. In face of such developments, the mere ability to read, write, and cipher, and the possession of a thin film of culture education, are no protection to mechanics and are not wage-earning to them in the sense in which these acquirements may be to others. I do not wish to be misunderstood on this point. I believe in the fullest development possible for public education; but I hold that we cannot as sensible men claim the right to-day to put the needs of the mercantile and professional classes before and to the exclusion of the industrial classes.

The interest in industrial education now rising will not die out. It will soon make itself felt in no light manner, and this annual disbursement of \$70,000,000 in the Northern States will not be begrudged when the industrial classes see that their needs are recognized as well as those of the mercantile and professional classes.

All that the creators of industrial wealth need and have a right to ask for is as good a preparation for their practical life in the public schools at present existing or to be established as all other classes are getting. To them, culture means a knowledge of living arts, while to others it may mean a knowledge of dead languages; and there is certainly as good a reason for the existence of the first sort of culture as for the second.

As we turn from the contemplation of particular States and survey the conditions surrounding and permeating this broad American life with all its possibilities, we have to note that much of our future weal or woe centres about the profitable employment of the industrial classes. Already they hold no small share of political power, and it is in the nature of things that their numbers should greatly increase. At present they are suffering from broad competition on the one hand and labor saving machinery on the other, and between this upper and nether millstone they are apt in their discontent to look upon capital and upon government as their oppressors.

These are facts which educators, economists, and statesmen cannot afford to ignore. The country is getting older; it is rapidly developing the wants and the tastes of older civilizations; and now, having provided for the education of the laborer, the shopkeeper, the merchant, and the professional man, it is time for us to recognize that the day of the mechanic has come at last, and come to stop.

Having dwelt more fully than perhaps I ought to have done on the general aspect of this question, I wish, in the few moments left to me, to make some suggestions on the second part of my subject: industrial drawing.

The term *industrial drawing* is used to distinguish it from all fanciful or ornamental education coming under the name of drawing.

It has been introduced into the schools of Massachusetts because, as the chairman of the drawing committee in Boston, Mr. Charles C. Perkins, says :

At least three-quarters of the children in our public schools are destined to get their living in industries which demand a knowledge of drawing. It has a bearing upon the manufacturing interests of the community, and these can only be vivified by the cultivation of public taste. As a matter of material gain, this question of uniting art and industry is now looked upon all the world over as paramount.

A French commission appointed to examine matters pertaining to industrial success reported, in the year 1863, as follows :

Among all the branches of instruction which, in different degrees, from the highest to the lowest grade, can contribute to the technical education of either sex, *drawing, in all its forms and applications, has been unanimously regarded as the one it is most important to make common.*

I have already quoted the opinion of the French commission of 1876, that "France ought to devote herself to the study of drawing and reinvigorate her productive powers at the very sources of art."

Drawing is now generally regarded as essentially educational, taught, as it is at present, as a workthing, not as a plaything. Let it be stated that without a knowledge of drawing skilled labor in industry is impossible, and, if we remember that what this country stands most in need of to-day is skilled labor, I think that argument on behalf of drawing is unnecessary.

To make it both proficient and popular, it must be taught by the regular teachers in the public schools, in every grade of them, to all pupils. This involves the previous instruction of those teachers, and by this action the cost of introducing the subject into the scheme of instruction is reduced to a minimum. We know this to be practicable, because it has already been done in Boston and in a large number of the most important cities in the United States.

That the public is interested in the matter is also unquestioned. At the last public exhibition of the drawings made in all the public schools of Boston, by actual count at the doors, more than thirty thousand persons attended the exhibition in three days.

The regular teachers of the public schools there are now teaching drawing more systematically than it is being taught in all grades of schools in any European country, and are, moreover, producing more originality and executive power in their pupils; and I have good reason for believing that wherever the subject has been equally systematically taught the results have been equally good.

There are, of course, more ways than that of cultivating public taste and thereby elevating the industries of the country. But as this subject of drawing lies at the foundation of all technical education, and as it can be easily and efficiently taught at a very nominal expense, this seems the place to begin the introduction of a practical element into public education. Judging from the experience of other countries, as

well as the result of what has already been done in this, it seems to me that the following plan is the most economical and successful method by which technical education may be promoted in this country :

1. That industrial drawing should be taught in the public day schools as an elementary part of all general education, and that industrial drawing and modelling be taught in free evening classes to persons of both sexes who are not in attendance at day schools. To become general, this should be accomplished by an act of the legislature of each State.

2. That a State normal art school for the training of teachers and designers be established in each capital city or other convenient centre, in connection with an industrial museum and art gallery.

3. That the teachers of drawing in normal schools, evening drawing classes, or schools of art, or persons acting as supervisors of drawing in public schools, be required to possess the certificate of qualification to act as teachers awarded, upon examination, by the State normal art schools.

4. That the National Government establish or assist in the establishment of a great technical school of industrial art at Washington.

Concerning these proposals, I have only time to summarize briefly. They are not mere theories to meet an imaginary evil; similar agencies have all been successfully carried out in other countries, and have met with success in correcting great national deficiencies.

It may be objected that there are not in the country sufficient works of art to fill museums and galleries; but to this I would reply that, for a very little money, reproductions of the finest works in the British Museum, the South Kensington Museum, the Louvre, and other great national collections can be obtained, and are as good for the purposes of instruction as the originals.

Besides this, public museums and galleries are like a vacuum—they fill themselves. The empty rooms of a museum and the bare walls of a picture gallery have an attractiveness and cohesiveness about them for works of art in the possession of private persons, that are simply irresistible. The law of gravitation applied to choice works of art takes them in a straight line into public galleries, when such galleries exist. The owners of such works try, in the first place, to soothe their sense of possession by *loaning* their treasures to the public; then they make a clean breast of it, and change the loan into a donation or bequest. That is how the South Kensington Museum and the Louvre have been made the glories of the earth: by a little knowledge of human nature on the part of their projectors.

The proposal to establish normal art schools is not so formidable as it may at first sight appear. They may form a part of one central art school, which every State ought to have, but it should be recognized that we cannot get the most efficient teachers without normal training, whatever may be the manual skill of the art students who offer them-

selves as teachers. The French people found this out in 1865. When the minister for public instruction required that all applicants for teacherships of drawing in the city of Paris should be examined before appointment, 193 applicants offered themselves, and out of these only 27 passed in the artistic and 13 in the geometrical subjects. In the next year, out of 182 candidates who were examined, only 30 were passed. Had it not been for this test, all of these unfit persons might have been appointed. That was sufficient evidence of the need for a normal school, and one was established by the government the same year at Cluny.

It has been well said that teachers are not a natural product, nor has private enterprise yet undertaken to produce them; so that, if they are to be made, the State must provide them, here as elsewhere.

To establish good normal instruction is also by far the most economical way of diffusing sound education, because by it the whole people are reached in time and in the way that the best experience suggests. Through the normal school may be regulated to a nicety the public education of a State.

Concerning the proposal to establish a central school of industrial art at Washington, one department of which might be for instruction in fine art exclusively, this appears to me to be essential as an example for the whole country and in order that the treasure houses of material now existing here for such a purpose may be utilized and made fruitful. It may be necessary for the protection of this nation that the sword be kept bright at West Point, but it would conduce as much to its greatness and its glory if the ploughshare were made radiant at Washington.

I cannot close without emphasizing, with the strongest language I can command, that, as educators and political economists, we must look out for the interests of the industrial classes more than has hitherto been done.

In the conflict that is imminent between aggregated capital on the one hand and ignorant, unskilled labor on the other, lurks the greatest danger to our whole social and political organism.

It is the province of public education to mitigate, if not entirely remove, these dangers. In view, therefore, of these vast annual expenditures for public instruction, I warn you against ignoring the interests of the industrial classes in education. To the public schools all classes should be taught to look as the very bulwark of their salvation; while to the state these schools should be what embankments are to the Dutch, or what its fleet is to the English people.

A miserable three-R's education is neither the one nor the other in this half of the nineteenth century. In this great industrial battle let us give honor to whom honor is due. The present mayor of Boston recently told the boys confined in the reform school of the city that, if he could bring it about, every one of them should be taught some trade while in the school, by which to earn an honest living when he left it. As part

of this education, every boy learns industrial drawing, and the same is true of the State Reform School boys at Westboro'. This is done for economical reasons, not for show.

All honor be to the pioneer city and State that have done so much. This, and all the work done for the same reason by people who are more farseeing than mere noisy politicians, has been done under fire.

Only a few days since, a leading journal in Boston, referring to the geometrical drawing taught in the schools, ignorant of the fact that geometry is the common basis of both fine and industrial art, asked in astonishment, What is the use of this trash? Yet the most distinguished American art critic has deliberately written that over the door of every workshop in the land should be printed the old Greek inscription "*None but the skilled in geometry can enter here.*"

In conclusion, I feel that I have trespassed too much and too long on your indulgence and forbearance, and that my subject has been too much for me, whatever it may have been for you.

If, however, the devotion of a lifetime to this subject has given me the right to speak, if my transatlantic origin and education have enabled me "to see ourself as others see us," then it has not been altogether an unqualified audacity that has brought me here to-night.

This, therefore, must be my apology, that though many of my stiff necked fellow countrymen come to this country to idle away their time and then go home to find fault with its institutions, I have come here to work, and to stay, and to do my share in improving them. And here, in my own home and in the home of my children, I have only asserted the Anglo-Saxon right of free speech, which as an American citizen I feel that I shall never forfeit, because it is the common inheritance of the English speaking race.

The PRESIDENT. The hour of adjournment having arrived, I am pleased to announce that the regular session will take place to-morrow morning at 9.30, when the meeting will open with remarks from Dr. John D. Philbrick, of Boston, on "Education at the Paris Exposition." I also have the honor to announce that to-morrow at half past twelve o'clock it will be the pleasure of the Department to return the visit of the President of the United States which he has so kindly paid us to-night. The Department stands adjourned until to-morrow at the usual hour.

FIFTH SESSION—THURSDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, *February 6, 1879.*

The Department met at 9.30 A. M.

Mr. J. O. WILSON offered the following preambles and resolution:

Whereas this convention of State and city superintendents of schools recognizes the necessity of industrial education in the public schools of America; and

Whereas, if a part of the time now given to writing in our day schools were devoted to drawing, the writing would be better and the power of drawing be a clear gain: Therefore

Resolved, That industrial drawing—consisting of geometrical drawing, free hand drawing, and elementary design—being now regarded as the common basis of technical education, should be taught in the public day schools as an elementary part of all general education; and that industrial drawing, modelling, and applied design for trades and manufactures should be taught to persons of both sexes in free evening classes for those who are not in attendance on the day schools.

The preambles and resolution were referred to the committee on resolutions.

On motion, it was agreed that the matter of a programme of exercises for the Department of Superintendence in connection with the meeting of the National Education Association at Philadelphia, in July next, be referred to the officers of the Department to act as they shall deem best.

Hon. GEORGE J. LUCKEY, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa., addressed the convention respecting Professor Smith's paper. Himself a firm believer in industrial education, he agreed with Professor Smith in the main; but if Professor Smith would have us believe that the public schools in this country are on trial and are being condemned by the press and the public because their curriculum does not include industrial training, he would have to dissent entirely. On the contrary, he believed that the schools have never been so criticised and opposed as since the effort to introduce industrial training into their curriculum has begun. He could say positively that this was the case in Pittsburgh. In fact the superintendents and teachers of the country are in advance of public sentiment. He was not afraid of the result, nor did he apprehend any danger to the public school system from any such clamor. Professor Smith, he thought, was wrong in presenting this one thing as everything; though, being a specialist, it was only natural. The elocutionist, the teacher of writing, the teacher of music, undoubtedly think their specialties as important as Professor Smith does his.

Hon. M. A. NEWELL, superintendent of public instruction for the State of Maryland, agreed with Mr. Luckey that the people are not eager for industrial training; he thought them opposed to instruction in drawing. It is quite evident that there is some public discontent with the public schools, but the public as evidently does not know what change will be best for it. He was quite in favor of Mr. Wilson's motion.

Dr. HANCOCK believed that industrial training would, when affairs would admit, become a component part of the public school course. He thought the most dangerous tendency in the minds of many is to underestimate the value of a good general education; this is far more valuable than any partial course, whether industrial or not.

Dr. PHILBRICK said that it was by his efforts that Professor Smith had been invited to his present duty in Massachusetts. He therefore

had a personal as well as a professional interest in the professor's work and words. Professor Smith is a positive man, a man of positive views; his utterances may need discussion and limitation before being agreed to; but no man does or can fear judicious and candid criticism less than the professor. He could not agree with Professor Smith in his strictures on the general course of instruction, which criticisms would be opposed by all the wisest and best of American educators.

After a few more remarks, the resolution offered by Mr. Wilson at the opening of the session was reported and adopted unanimously.

EDUCATION AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

The PRESIDENT announced that Dr. John D. Philbrick would now address the Department on "Education at the Paris Exposition."

Having pleaded in excuse for coming before the Department without a carefully prepared paper, want of time since his return from abroad to prepare such a paper, and the fact that he had not engaged to prepare one, his name having been placed upon the programme without his knowledge or consent, he proceeded to speak at length without notes. For publication, however, the following abstract of his remarks is given:

I.—OUR OWN EDUCATIONAL EXHIBITION.

As Congress made no special provision for an exhibition of education at the Paris Exposition, it was for the Commissioner General to decide what should be done in regard to the matter. He took an enlightened and liberal view of the subject, but found himself unable to set apart for this purpose more than a limited space and a small sum of money; and the time left for preparation was exceedingly brief. The prospect was unpromising. Some leading educational men, whose opinions were entitled to the highest respect, deemed it under the circumstances unwise to attempt to make an exhibition; in the view of others, there were considerations which seemed to render a fair measure of success possible. These considerations were the assurance of the wise counsel and efficient aid of Commissioner Eaton, the offer of the use of the machinery of the Bureau of Education for communication with educational authorities, reliance upon the prompt and cordial coöperation of educational officials, and the expectation of obtaining a considerable proportion of the most characteristic and valuable of the materials comprised in the exhibits of the States represented at the Centennial. The anticipations based on these considerations proved to be well founded.

It was necessary, of course, to make the plan of the exhibition conform to the circumstances, and, consequently, in the choice of materials such objects had to be selected as would involve little or no expense, require but a short time in the preparation, and occupy the smallest possible amount of space. It was determined to prefer quality to quantity, to make a representation of the best things in each category without

regard to State lines or sections of the country rather than an exhibition en masse of things good, bad, and indifferent from every quarter. It was not, however, considered best to limit it to any one department or grade of education, but to make it, if possible, as comprehensive in scope as the official scheme itself of the educational department of the exposition, comprising the elementary, secondary, and superior grades of instruction, both general and special. In a word, the aim was to make a comprehensive, select, representative, national exhibition.

Four kinds of materials enter into the composition of an educational exhibition :

1. Illustrations of educational buildings with their furniture and fittings.
2. Illustrations and specimens of appliances and apparatus for instruction and training.
3. Scholars' work, literary, scientific, mechanical, and artistic.
4. Educational literature, embracing all printed matter bearing directly on education.

All these kinds were represented as fully as the space would permit. School architecture was illustrated by models, by framed drawings and paintings for wall display, and by portfolios of drawings, photographs, and engravings. In the department of apparatus and appliances for teaching the collection was limited chiefly to the elementary grade. Scholars' work ranged through all the grades, and the amount was very large. But I regard the collection in the department of educational literature as the most interesting and valuable part of the exhibition. It comprised about 2,500 bound volumes. The text book division was very full. It contained specimens of most of the text books issued at the present time by American publishers. The most important contribution to this department of the exhibition consisted of the reports and other publications of the Bureau of Education; in fact, these documents alone would have made an exhibition of which I should have been proud. Probably no one publication in the exhibition was more characteristic or more creditable to the country than the grand and I might say monumental Report on Public Libraries in the United States, which was the product of the Bureau of Education.

In the preparation of new materials for the exhibition, foremost in merit among cities were Washington and Cincinnati, and, among States, Kansas; the superintendent of schools of Wisconsin is entitled to special acknowledgments for his zeal and energy in collecting and forwarding materials.

The location assigned for the exhibition by the Commissioner General was excellent. The installation was not an easy task; the problem to be solved was to pack as much material as possible in a given space, and at the same time to pay due regard to the interests of individual exhibitors, to the demands of classification, to the convenience of visitors, and to the necessity of rendering the exhibition, as a whole, comely

in appearance, so as to produce a favorable impression upon the numerous observers who, in passing, paused for a moment only to get a general impression of the assemblage of objects presented to view. On the wall, above the maps, charts, and architectural illustrations, was placed in large gilt capitals the legend embodying the most characteristic fact in our school system: "*L'instruction publique est gratuite dans tous les États de l'Union.*" This inscription was gazed upon and spelled out with absorbing interest by myriads of French peasants, and I have often heard French schoolmasters remark, on reading it, "That is what we are coming to." It was the hope inspired by the success of the new republic, and indeed the common republican sentiment made Frenchmen and Americans at the Exposition brothers.

But the exhibition was mainly intended, not for popular effect, but for the study and appreciation of experts. Inside our barriers we had no room for the general crowd, but we had space enough and a warm welcome for all inquiring educational men and women. These came in unbroken succession from the day of opening until the closing hour. We had something in our wide range of materials to present for examination to almost every inquirer. Teachers were generally most interested in our text books, and of text books our remarkable collection of geographies attracted the most attention. Well might they be interested, not only in the handsome text and superior illustrations of our geographies, but in the contrast which they afforded to the European geographies in respect to their impartiality in the treatment of foreign countries. I am told that a geographical text book was in use in England in 1878 in which the text devoted to the United States is limited to one sentence, stating that it is a country lying between Canada and Mexico; and the geography I found used as a text book in one of the best schools of Paris contained only about a third of a page of text on our country, of which the statistical part was quite obsolete. The very complete collective exhibit from the city of Washington was a very valuable feature in the exhibition, and was studied with much interest. Perhaps no part of the exhibition on the whole attracted more attention than that which related to the higher education of women. The institutions which represented this department of our system of instruction were Mt. Holyoke Female Seminary, Wellesley College, and Vassar College. A great number of copies of pamphlets relating to the organization, courses of study, statistics, &c., of these institutions were gratuitously distributed to visitors coming from every civilized nation.

The object of our exhibition was not to obtain prizes nor to glorify our system of education, but to contribute our quota of means to the grand enterprise designed to promote the general welfare. Still, it would be an unpardonable affectation to pretend to be indifferent to the judgments pronounced upon our merits by competent and impartial experts. I own that I take some pride, under the circumstances, in the fact that our little exhibition was found by the three juries on education to con-

tain objects worthy to receive *one hundred and twenty-one awards*, consisting of 28 gold medals, 44 silver medals, 24 bronze medals, and 25 honorable mentions—a number of awards greater by twenty-eight than was received by any other country except France. To the above awards should be added *six decorations*, bestowed in recognition of merit in connection with the exhibition, namely, one cross of the Legion of Honor and two gold and three silver palms of the University of France.

The materials of our exhibition were earnestly sought after by the educational representatives of several countries, but it seemed to me proper that in disposing of them France should have the preference. In this view the Commissioner General, and I think Commissioner Eaton, fully concurred. Accordingly, with the consent of the contributors, the greater part of the exhibition was offered to the French minister of public instruction, to be placed in the pedagogical library and museum which he had recently established in the Palais Bourbon in connection with an educational bureau of statistics, after the model of our National Bureau of Education, with M. Buisson as the chief. This offer was accepted by Minister Bardoux, in a grateful letter, in which he signified his intention to set apart a hall for the separate installation of the materials presented as a permanent American exhibition of education. Two rooms were actually appropriated to this purpose. In the distribution of materials, Japan had a moderate share, and a small quantity was sent to Italy, England, and Scotland.

For whatever success the exhibition had, the credit is primarily due to Hon. Richard C. McCormick, the Commissioner General, not only in consideration of the fact that he took the responsibility of deciding that an exhibition should be made, but also because of his cordial and intelligent coöperation in its direction. And his merit in this connection was properly recognized by the international jury by the award of a gold medal. The assistance and coöperation afforded by the Bureau of Education and its worthy chief were of very great value and could not have been dispensed with. The aid afforded by numerous individuals in sending desirable contributions cannot be mentioned here in detail, but the list of the awards and the special catalogue of the exhibition taken together show approximately the true roll of honor in connection with this enterprise. I say "taken together," for in the nature of things it was not possible for all objects to receive their just recognition by awards.

II.—THE EXHIBITIONS OF OTHER COUNTRIES.

The countries besides our own making considerable exhibitions were France, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Japan, Italy, Spain, Canada, and the Netherlands. Several other countries had exhibitions of less importance. Unfortunately none of the German states was represented. The French exhibition far exceeded all others both in extent and in variety of materials. Besides the general exhibition under the auspices of the minister of public instruction, the city of Paris fur-

nished an admirable exhibit, and several important classes of special schools were exhibited separately by the ministers having charge of their administration. The Belgian exhibition, which was installed in an extensive annex, was very full and complete, and was admirably organized. The Austrian exhibition was less extensive, but in quality and arrangement was unsurpassed. Switzerland was especially strong in the elementary grade. The exhibition from Japan was very remarkable for the evidence it afforded of the rapid educational progress which has recently been made in that interesting country.

Looking at the exhibitions as a whole, there were two features which were especially conspicuous: first, the multiplicity and variety of appliances for intuitive instruction; and, secondly, the representation of systems and institutions for industrial education.

III.—FACTS, LESSONS, INFERENCES, AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

Education is eminently an experimental science, and, although it may never be advisable for one community to copy the system in its details of another community, it is chiefly by the comparison of systems, organizations, and methods, rather than from theoretical speculations, that progress in education has been brought about. One of the causes of the superior development of education in Germany is doubtless to be found in the fact that the numerous systems of instruction existing in the states constituting the German nation have afforded peculiar facilities for the study of comparative education. In this respect our own country possesses unequalled advantages, which, by the machinery of the Bureau of Education, we are enabled to utilize.

So the chief utility of a universal exhibition of education consists in the means it affords for comparison and for obtaining information respecting the results of experiments in every department of education. In this respect the Paris Exposition was without doubt superior to all the universal expositions which preceded it. To report on the lessons it furnished was not a part of my engagement, that duty being assigned to a gentleman of excellent qualifications for the task, General Chamberlain, president of Bowdoin College and United States Commissioner to Paris for the State of Maine. However, I applied myself while at Paris none the less earnestly to the study of educational problems, being greatly stimulated and encouraged in this work by the exceptional facilities afforded for it.

I shall here attempt nothing like a complete and orderly statement of the facts, lessons, and suggestions derived from studies and observations in connection with the last Paris and the two preceding universal expositions. I present only a few facts and conclusions relating more especially to the educational questions at the present time more or less agitated among us.

1. The *crèche*, or day nursery for the care of children under three years of age whose mothers go from their homes to work, is an institution the

utility of which, especially in the larger cities, is generally recognized in European countries.

2. The infant school, for children between the age for the day nursery and the school age, is largely regarded in European countries as a very desirable, if not an essential, part of the public school system.

3. Improvement schools, or schools taught evenings or Sundays for pupils who have completed the regular elementary course of study, have been made in several countries a constituent part of the school system, and in some countries attendance at such schools is made compulsory.

4. Educational authorities regard no system of public instruction adequate that does not provide normal schools enough for the training of *all the teachers employed*.

5. The reports which have been during a few years past so much circulated in regard to the abolition of corporal punishment in foreign countries are mostly false.

6. Drawing is regarded by all the best authorities, from Michael Angelo down to the present time, as the foundation of all industrial education.

7. Drawing should be taught in all elementary schools; not only as being the foundation of industrial education, but as being the instrument of a general culture which every child should receive.

8. From the history of the progress of education throughout the civilized world, it is reasonable to infer that compulsory attendance is destined to become coextensive with the existence of public instruction.

9. The general tendency in all countries is to make all public schools entirely secular.

10. Tuition in public schools is not generally gratuitous or free, but it is rapidly becoming so.

11. The notion that the State should concern itself with elementary education only is condemned by the usage of nearly every nation in the world.

12. Schools for industrial instruction have been rapidly increased in recent years, but there are almost no schools for teaching mechanical trades supported at public expense.

13. Girls are universally taught needlework in public schools.

14. The school furniture in America is the best in the world, but in most foreign countries it is regarded as too costly for general use.

15. The most characteristic feature of school architecture in France is a large hall on the ground floor, where the pupils meet at recess to take their noon meal.

16. Every German school-house in the cities has a gymnasium attached.

17. It is believed that the barbarism of subjecting professional teachers to an annual election is unknown outside of our own country.

18. The public schools in *some* of our American cities, taking into

account all their appointments, are not inferior to the schools of any foreign city.

19. The proportion of female teachers in the public schools of America is too large for the best interests of education.

20. The history of education does not sustain the dogma that the coeducation of the sexes is the normal finality to which civilization is tending. The reverse is true.

21. Differentiation is the law of educational progress; that is, as education advances the kinds of institutions of instruction are multiplied and their functions are reduced in number.

On the invitation of the President, Hon. JOSIAH DENT, one of the commissioners of the District of Columbia, addressed the Department. He said that to him had been intrusted the duty of special attention to the schools and charities of the District. He recounted in a few sentences the peculiar position of the District as the creation of the National Government, and without autonomy of any kind; subject to extraordinary expense on account of its urban character and its position as the capital of the nation, yet unable, from its uncommercial position, to support these expenses without help. He trusted that members of the Department would use their efforts to inform their constituents and the National Legislature of the peculiar facts of the case.

The PRESIDENT then read the following letter, which the Department unanimously adopted as its official action, ordering its officers to sign the same and to spread it on the minutes:

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE,
Washington, D. C., February 6, 1879.

SIR: Your fellow laborers in the work of education desire to record in some suitable form their appreciation of the ability and industry shown by you in the management of the educational exhibit from the United States in the Paris Exposition of 1878.

It was late when you were summoned to undertake this work, for which no preparations had been made and on the conduct of which the good name and fame of American teachers and teaching in other countries depended. With an energy and a judgment none the less noteworthy because anticipated by us, you collected the material and organized the exhibit at the eleventh hour in such form and order as to attract the attention of experts and enable the juries to perceive its value and its significance.

The result, so honorable to your profession and country and so gratifying to yourself, is too well known to need any mention.

For this service and success we beg to tender our grateful acknowledgments and our hearty congratulations.

We have the honor to subscribe this letter in behalf of this Department and by its order.

J. P. WICKERSHAM,
President of the Department,
J. J. BURNS,
Secretary of the Department.

Hon. JOHN D. PHILBRICK, LL. D. (St. Andrew's),
Officer of Public Instruction (France), Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, &c.

Mr. NEWELL, as chairman, presented the report of the committee on national legislation.

The committee was composed of the following gentlemen: Hon. M. A. Newell, State superintendent of public instruction of Maryland, chairman; Hon. W. T. Harris, LL. D., superintendent of city schools, St. Louis, Mo.; Hon. J. D. Philbrick, United States Commissioner to the Paris Exposition, Boston, Mass.; Hon. George J. Luckey, superintendent of city schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; and Hon. Gustavus J. Orr, State school commissioner of Georgia.

Following is the report:

Your committee, to whom was referred the address of General Eaton on "The wants of the Bureau of Education," would hereby report that they have considered the same, and for the purpose of forming a more careful opinion of the needs and necessities of said Bureau of Education, they have visited the same and inspected its work, so far as possible, both as to amount and character. Your committee find the scope of the work undertaken by the Bureau to be strictly confined to the programme laid down for it by General Eaton in his able address. The objects and aims of this Bureau should be on all proper occasions set forth, in order to remove false and erroneous impressions that have gone abroad regarding its tendency to centralization of the control of public education.

The Bureau of Education disclaims through its founders, the Congress of the United States, and through all its advocates, including the teachers and school officers and directors of all parts of the country, any intention or tendency to interfere with the educational systems of any State or section of the country, or in anywise to exercise authority in the collection or dissemination of information; said Bureau neither having any such authority granted to it hitherto nor seeking to obtain such authority in the future, but leaving entirely to States and local self-government the organization and management of schools, and finding its proper sphere of usefulness in collecting and disseminating educational information through the voluntary coöperation of teachers and others engaged in educational work, and through the means afforded it by Congress. It accomplishes this work and renders it available by the following means:

First. Chiefly by its annual report, containing information as to the educational systems of the United States and foreign countries.

Secondly. By its educational library and museum, which benefit to some degree even the most distant localities through their influence upon the representatives of the people of all sections of the country assembled here in Congress or visiting the capital for business or other causes.

Thirdly. In furnishing information to Congress which shall guide in the preparation of laws relating to donations for the aid of education in the several States, or to such matters as the management and control of the Indians, the schedules for the national census, &c.

Fourthly. Its function in obtaining important educational information and plans and models of school architecture, apparatus, and furniture from foreign governments, and in reciprocating these favors by exchange.

With these objects and aims of the Bureau of Education clearly in view, your committee would further report in detail regarding the several items enumerated by the Commissioner as wants of his Bureau:

1. Your committee regard as of first importance the publication and distribution of the annual report of the Commissioner in an edition sufficient in size to furnish a copy of the same to each party contributing to the statistical information which it contains, and at least one copy to each superintendent of schools in cities, towns, and villages, to each president of school board, to each county superintendent or commissioner of schools, and to all teachers prominent in their influence upon the direction of the

methods of discipline or instruction. Such an edition your committee think should comprise at least 12,000 copies for the exclusive use of the Bureau, besides an edition published for the use of members of Congress to distribute to their constituents.

2. Your committee would further report in regard to the means and facilities for collecting statistics for this report, involving the work of examining the reports of education, domestic and foreign; the condensation of information in the form of abstracts and the translation of pertinent and valuable matter; the publication of Circulars of Information on special features of education in the systems at home and abroad; the distribution of the publications of the Bureau and of books and apparatus received from abroad—these things, together with the correspondence necessary, demand a considerable increase of the clerical force to enable the Bureau to accomplish its work to the best advantage.

3. Your committee find further occasion for an increase in the appropriation made to the Bureau in the flourishing condition of the pedagogical library and museum of school apparatus, containing all books on education published in this country or in foreign countries; also containing plans and models of buildings, furniture, apparatus, and exhibits of pupils' work. The proper arrangement and display of this material and the preparation of catalogues and inventories, together with the other work that has been named, demand, in the opinion of your committee, an addition to the present clerical force equivalent to four clerks and two copyists, which addition your committee recommend that this convention of superintendents ask of Congress in a memorial addressed to the proper committees of that body.

4. Your committee would further recommend that the memorial herein named should suggest to the committees of Congress addressed the importance of locating the Bureau of Education in permanent quarters, said Bureau having been removed five times within the nine years of its existence, and the provision of a fire-proof room or rooms for its library and museum, if possible.

5. Your committee would further indorse and approve of the provision for transportation and exchange of documents, apparatus, and models illustrative of educational methods, as recommended by Commissioner Eaton.

6. Your committee would further report that their personal examination of the several departments of the Bureau of Education enables them to confirm their previous impressions regarding the present efficiency of the management of said Bureau; and your committee take pleasure in stating that they believe that their own favorable impression regarding the present Commissioner's direction of this Bureau is shared by the teachers and directors of education generally in all sections of this country. Your committee therefore recommend that this convention of superintendents express their emphatic approval of the present conduct of said Bureau of Education, and their confidence in the measures inaugurated and carried out by the present Commissioner.

Mr. NEWELL, as chairman of the same committee, further said: The committee to whom was referred the paper read by Hon. G. J. Orr, after careful consideration of the recommendation therein contained in reference to legislation, have the honor to report that, in our opinion, the views of this body as expressed one year ago on devoting the proceeds of the sales of public lands to the support of primary schools in the various States, were wise, and that we should continue to urge upon Congress such action as will insure this result. We would further recommend that the valuable paper by Dr. Orr be published as a Circular of Information by the Bureau of Education.

On motion, the report of the committee on legislation was accepted and unanimously adopted.

The committee on resolutions reported as follows :

Resolved, That the thanks of this Department are due, and hereby tendered, to the board of education of the District of Columbia.

Resolved, That the chairman of this Department, Hon. James P. Wickersham, LL. D., superintendent of public instruction for the State of Pennsylvania, deserves our hearty thanks for the energy and ability with which he has conducted its affairs both before and during these sessions.

Resolved, finally, That the Commissioner of Education be requested to print and distribute the proceedings of this convention, and the papers read before us, as one of the Circulars of Information issued by his Office.

The resolutions were adopted.

The PRESIDENT. If there is no further business, I announce that the Department is now ready to make the visits referred to: First, to the President of the United States; next, to the Corcoran Art Gallery; and, third, to Hon. Carl Schurz, Secretary of the Interior. It is desirable that the members of the Department should go in a body. We are now ready for a motion to adjourn.

The motion to adjourn being made and carried, the Department of Superintendence was declared adjourned sine die.

APPENDIX A.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION FOR 1877.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION FOR 1877.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *December 11, 1877.*

The Department of Superintendence met in the lecture room of the Congregational Church, December 11, 1877, and organized by electing Hon. J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, President.

The President thanked the Department for the honor done him in making him President, congratulated the members on the unusually full attendance, and proposed that work be begun.

He appointed Hon. J. Ormond Wilson of Washington, D. C., Hon. J. H. Smart of Indiana, and Hon. M. A. Newell of Maryland an executive committee to arrange and present all business for the consideration of the meeting.

After thanking the proprietors of the Ebbitt House for their kind offer of two parlors for its use, the Department proceeded to consider the proper representation of American education at the Paris Exposition of 1878.

President Wickersham was in favor of making an educational exhibit at Paris if a suitably qualified gentleman should be appointed to prepare and display it, and if a sufficient quantity of the appropriation should be set apart for the expenses of it.

It was moved and carried that President Wickersham be chairman and Messrs. E. A. Apgar of New Jersey, John Hancock of Dayton, Ohio, A. B. Lemmon of Kansas, and Neil Gilmour of New York the other members of a committee to consider the whole subject.

Hon. Ambrose E. Burnside, United States Senator from Rhode Island, then made a few remarks to the Department.

THE SCHOOL ORGANIZATION OF A STATE.

The executive committee announced "The best school organization for a State" to be the first subject for discussion, and called on Dr. John Hancock for the opening remarks.

Dr. HANCOCK deprecated criticism of extemporaneous talk such as his would be. Continuing, he expressed his individual wish to see a national university established in Washington City, and a national system of education organized and represented in the Federal Cabinet. Public instruction, in his opinion, needs unification and the stimulus

the nation can give. Every State should have a board of education, the members of which might be the governor and other high officers of the State. This board should select the State superintendent, and he should appoint a county superintendent for each county, and possibly the superintendents of the city schools. He would not carry unification so far that the school service would degenerate into a mere mechanism, but only far enough to keep up the standard both as to quantity and quality of instruction. Twenty years ago country schools in his State often taught algebra, geometry, physics, even Latin, and sometimes Greek. This was an incitement to pupils to go higher after leaving school; now pupils are occupied for the whole school curriculum in the same rudimentary branches, and receive no incentive to pursue the higher subjects. He thought nothing more important than the improvement of country schools, in which three-fourths of the people receive their whole scholastic training.

Mr. BARRINGER, of Newark, N. J., said that in New Jersey the State board of education appoints the State and county superintendents. He believed the State school organization should be permanent as well as comprehensive.

Mr. JOHN C. HERVEY, of Wheeling, W. Va., said that Dr. Hancock had described, substantially, the school system of West Virginia. The State board appoints the State superintendent and subordinate officers. Public school trustees are now appointed by electoral boards.

President WICKERSHAM would like to see this matter thoroughly examined. He did not doubt that educational interests will be organized by States: but State organizations differ greatly; some of them are composed of the State officers ex officio, and others of the State officers elect. The State officers are appointed sometimes by the governor, and the county officers sometimes elected by the people or elected by school boards as in Pennsylvania. Then in townships we have all sorts of organizations. He thought it a great question, one even of the first importance, what is the best school organization for a State and what the best method of appointing State officers, what the best way is of organizing the school force in counties and also in townships. Those schools that are best supervised are the best all the world over, and where we have a good organization the fruits of it will be apparent.

Mr. APGAR, of New Jersey, agreed with Dr. Hancock, but would go further; it is all important that the State board of education should be absolutely non-partisan. Another element of possible weakness is in the present division of counties into school districts, each having a district board and one school. The smallest school unit should be the township, and the township board should work directly with the county superintendent on one hand and the schools of the township on the other; the township schools compared with district schools can be much better graded, more economically supported, and far better supervised. Furthermore, Mr. Apgar thought that the State should raise by tax and

distribute an amount sufficient to meet the average expenses that are incurred, thus relieving most of the districts from local taxation; many districts are too poor to raise the necessary sum under the usual rules. He would in this, as in other matters, have the supreme authority of the State raise, disburse, and supervise the expenditure of the money.

Mr. GILMOUR said that all the gentlemen who had spoken seemed to be in favor of a State board of education; why, unless they think that such a board would select for State superintendent a man without political opinions, he did not know. He thought any one without decided opinions in politics would probably have no decided opinions respecting education. At the same time he would not select a man for superintendent simply because he is a politician. In the State of New York there is a board known as the Regents of the University. The gentlemen who form this board are charged with the supervision of the academies and colleges of the State and with other duties relating thereto. The regents are elected by joint ballot of the senate and assembly, and the legislature has invariably chosen gentlemen of much personal worth, distinguished for learning and ability. The gentlemen who have been so elected regents have discharged their duties with as much earnestness and fidelity as if they had been elected by a State board of education. The State superintendent of public instruction is elected in the same manner as the regents. When it is remembered that this method has given to the cause of education Victor M. Rice, whose whole soul was in his work, and who did much for the advancement of public instruction, and Henry H. Van Dyck and Abram B. Weaver, whose names will long live as earnest advocates of public schools, he thought it would be admitted that the legislature of New York had chosen its chief educational officers with as much good judgment and had made as good selections of men as could have been done by any State board of education. While only about twenty men in that legislature can be found who would cut off the normal school portion of the educational system of New York, he was willing to trust the interests of public instruction to such a body. The State superintendent of public instruction is directly responsible to the legislature and reports to that body. If at any time a State superintendent unworthy of the position or negligent in the discharge of his duties should be elected, the legislature can make provision in such a case. In New York school commissioners have supervision of the schools in the rural districts; in the cities, superintendents are charged with the duties of supervision and other matters relating to the schools under their care. School commissioners are elected by the voters of their respective districts. There is on the average outside of the cities more than one school commissioner to each assembly district. This is the best system of supervision that has yet been devised in New York, which has the school district system. He was satisfied that the township system is preferable, and looked for its adoption at no distant day.

New York has for several years raised by State tax about three million dollars for the support of the public schools; the rest of the amount necessary for their maintenance is raised by local taxation. The amount of money annually expended for public educational interests is between eleven and twelve million dollars; and no tax is more cheerfully paid than that which is levied for the purpose of preparing the children of to-day to become good citizens in the future.

Mr. LEXMON thought this a question that cannot be answered too soon. On its settlement much of the work of the future must depend. It is a question of equal importance to the older settled communities of the East, to the thousands that are to-day organizing society in the West, and to the South in its attempt to recover from the mistakes of the past. We believe that mental, moral, and physical development should be guaranteed to every child; that our Government depends upon the intelligence of the people for its very existence; that it is only in schools organized, controlled, and in great part supported by the State that the mass of the children ever will or can be educated; and that the State should make ample provision for the school training of all its children. How can this educational work be done by the State in the best manner and at the least expense? For a century we have been trying experiments, and to-day we find that no two States have exactly the same system. Each one of these systems has its weak and its strong points. Can we combine these best features in a system that shall be better than any that has yet been tried? Reference has been made to the East and to what has been done there. You of the East can speak from experience. Your plans have been tried longer than have ours of the West. Some of us have not tested any system long enough to learn its real worth; we expect to get many valuable lessons from your experience. If your plans are not the best, we do not, after you have tried them so long, want to be forced to test them ourselves. As to the subdivision of territory for school purposes he would ask, What should be the unit of subdivision in a State educational system? Two general plans of districting a State for school purposes have been tried. They may be designated as the independent district and the township plans. Kansas has had the independent district plan for seventeen years and is not satisfied with it. It has been given a fair trial, and if it could be successful anywhere it would be so in that State, because most of the inhabitants have been educated in eastern schools. They believe in education. They know its advantages and they are determined that the State of their adoption shall stand second to none. They are the kind of people who make the best of everything. They have dotted the prairies with school-houses that would be a credit to any State in the Union. Year by year they have increased the length of the school term and improved their methods of instruction. Under this system of districting much has been accomplished, but many are now inquir

ing it another and a better plan cannot be devised. Some of the defects of the independent district system may be briefly stated as follows:

First. It requires too much machinery. Kansas now has about five thousand of these school organizations, requiring a little army of fifteen thousand district officers. It is impossible to secure complete and accurate reports of the work done and money expended in many of these districts.

Secondly. The wishes of some influential men in the neighborhood are too often followed in the formation of school districts and the selection of sites for school-houses. This gives districts of greatly varying sizes, shapes, school population, and taxable property, and school-houses often very inconveniently situated.

Thirdly. The influence of the teacher and the progress of the school are too likely to be impaired by neighborhood quarrels that are constantly arising. The management of the school should be removed as far as possible from these local disturbances.

Fourthly. Under this plan of districting it is next to impossible to secure systematic work in the schools of any given territory. Each district is a little kingdom in itself, having nothing in common with its neighbors. Its text books, rules, plans, and general school arrangements may be unlike those of any surrounding districts.

Many other defects of this system might be stated. The longer it is tried the more apparent its defects become. The people of Kansas are tired of it, and are ready to take a step forward in building up a State school system. In Illinois each congressional township is a school district. Mr. Lemmon thought that that plan cannot be recommended for a State having thousands of school-houses already built. In Kansas they would try to secure the enactment of a law making each municipal township a separate school organization. This will do away with four-fifths of the officers, and give a system under which they hope to make more rapid growth in the future than in the past.

Mr. JILLSON, ex-State superintendent of South Carolina, said that while uniformity of systems might be desirable theoretically, it would be unsafe unless there were an equal development of educational experience and spirit in all localities. His own experience led him to oppose election as a method of choosing school officers, because candidates are very often quite incompetent and difficult to get rid of. He would suggest:

1. That there should be a State board of education, to consist, perhaps, of the governor, because he is the chief executive officer of the State; of the attorney general, because he is the State's chief legal adviser, and of three other gentlemen connected with eminent institutions of learning in the State; one of these should be appointed by the governor once every three years, and one for one year. Such a plan would create a vacancy in the board at the end of each year. Let the appointment of a State superintendent be placed in the hands of this board, with power and authority to remove for cause. In this, as well as in all other cases,

the authority to appoint should always be supplemented with power to remove for cause.

2. A county board of education, consisting of the county superintendent and two other members, to be appointed by the State board of education.

3. A board of school trustees for each township or school district, consisting of three members, to be appointed by the county board of education.

4. A city board of education, to be appointed by the State board of education, or by the mayor by and with the consent of the board of aldermen, and to be clothed with authority to appoint the city superintendent.

Forbearing to discuss in detail the various powers and duties to be conferred upon these several educational boards, the speaker added that all educational matters and interests should be as far removed as possible from the influence of partisan politics. As to the means and methods of raising funds for the support of public schools, he would mention three sources of school revenue, namely: First, a general State levy for public school purposes; second, a poll or capitation tax; third, a local levy. It should be a condition that no city, town, or school district should be entitled to receive its pro rata share of the proceeds of the general State school levy unless it would by voluntary action on the part of its qualified electors levy upon itself a reasonable local school tax. The proceeds of the State school levy should be apportioned on the basis of school attendance. Those school districts which have tried the experiment of local taxation for public school purposes have increased the same from year to year and have augmented the efficiency and number of their public schools in a corresponding ratio. In the city of Charleston, for instance, they have an annual local school levy of one and one-half mills, and they are able, by means of their local taxation, together with the poll tax and their portion of the State levy for public school purposes, to continue their public schools for ten months in the year, and their schools are very good indeed, the best in the State. The ultimate efficiency and success of any system of common education depend, in a great measure, upon the public spirit of the people on the question of local school taxation. The gentleman from New York has spoken of State legislatures as bodies to be relied upon in the grave and important matters of educational interests and welfare. Mr. JILLSON could not agree entirely with this opinion. He believed it to be the best and safest plan to have school officers appointed, and to have some quick and sure methods of disposing of such officers when they do not do their duty.

President Wickersham then introduced to the Department Hon. George B. Loring, M. C., of Massachusetts, and Hon. Edwin Willis, M. C., of Michigan. At his invitation, Mr. LORING spoke as follows:

Gentlemen, I do not feel authorized to take part in this discussion of the organization of the schools in the various States, more especially as I understand that Mr.

Dickinson, the secretary of the board of education in Massachusetts, will be here to speak for that Commonwealth and the work going on there in the cause of good learning. But I am interested in the business of education as you all are, and were I not I should be false to the traditions and sentiments of the people whom I represent. Massachusetts abounds in schools of every description: common schools, high schools, colleges, and industrial schools, devoted to teaching all the arts of life. In this work she stands by the side of the most active of her sister States, that she joins here in the admirable service of comparing the various systems in operation in our country and of endeavoring to ascertain the most effectual method of organizing a uniform system throughout the country. The investigation is interesting. Useful as the plan now in operation is acknowledged to be, I am impressed with the idea that there is room for improvement. Are you all confident that the system of graded schools is perfect in all its operations? Have we not reduced the work of education too much to the artificial operation of machinery, and cooled the inspiration and ardor which should attend it? Does the system bring out well drilled and well grounded scholars, whose knowledge is general and available at all times? It may be that my doubts are unfounded in this matter, but a recent experience in the district which I have the honor to represent in Congress has arrested my attention and has filled my mind with grave apprehensions with regard to the important and intricate work of education which we have organized. Not many months ago a competitive examination of candidates for admission to West Point was instituted by my predecessor in Congress. The committee to whom the work was assigned was well selected, and the candidates to the number of twenty came from the high schools in the district. The examination was carefully and fairly conducted; and the questions, which were submitted in writing, were judiciously divided among the studies ordinarily pursued by scholars in the best organized schools. Of the twenty boys examined but one was found to be in any way fitted, and he, on examination at West Point, was rejected on so many points that he could not be nominated again. A second attempt followed with but little better success, ten boys having been examined and but one found so qualified as to secure for himself admission and good standing at the Military Academy. As the fruits of a graded system of schools, these facts are entitled to careful consideration. These boys may have been accomplished for certain specific purposes, they may have been well educated in the branches taught in the high schools whence they came; but they were manifestly deficient in general culture and in that varied accomplishment required for admission into the higher institutions of the land. The work devoted to them may have been well done, but it was not so done as to serve their purpose. Now, this was not so under a system once in vogue in our country, a system especially perfected in the county of Essex, in which my district is situated. That county has won an enviable reputation for its institutions of learning and for the large number of cultivated and able men whom it has sent into the various walks of life. For more than a century it has been renowned for its jurists, statesmen, theologians, scholars. Its leading minds have performed great service in every public walk. The colleges, all the institutions of higher learning, have been filled with its distinguished sons. In the days of her academical modes of education, when a classical school, so called, was to be found in all the large towns, and every district had its humble school-house for mixed and general education, the educated young men of Essex were so taught that they considered their presentation to higher institutions equivalent to admission. The cause of the change from this fortunate condition I will not undertake to discuss. I leave that for you who are engaged in the business which has brought you together. If, as I have suggested, more general culture is required, may not the high school system be so modified as to partake a little of the old academic method and to result in a little of the old academic accomplishment? Is there not a middle ground between graded and mixed education better than either? I leave these suggestions to your own investigation, with the assurance that I shall accept your verdict with confidence

and satisfaction, and shall be ready to consider the question more elaborately at some future time should an opportunity be offered. I am sure your deliberations will be of great value to the educational work of our country.

Mr. J. H. SMART, resuming the discussion, said that the weak point in the usual way of choosing a State superintendent is the danger of losing a competent and experienced officer by failing to reëlect him. A State superintendent, to be thoroughly useful, should be retained in office long enough to acquire the respect and coöperation of the teachers and the confidence of the legislature. This cannot be accomplished in a year or two. A properly constituted State board is a compensation for this evil to some extent. In Indiana the governor, the presidents of the State university and of the State agricultural college, the principal of the State normal school, and the superintendents of the three most populous cities form the board, of which the State superintendent is *ex officio* the presiding officer.

Dr. HENRY BARNARD remarked that there are great numbers of children now educated in the public schools who could not have been instructed by any other instrumentality.

Mr. HANCOCK said that if Mr. Loring is right the educators of the country are entirely wrong. He thought that the experience of the Essex district pupils had been very unfortunate. All his school work in Ohio had not shown any such case. He had known every candidate for admission to West Point from Cincinnati for fifteen years, and no candidate from the public schools had ever failed to pass the required examination.

President WICKERSHAM, reminding members that the subject of discussion was the organization of a State system, said that in Pennsylvania the State superintendent is appointed for four years by the governor and must be confirmed by a two-thirds vote of the State senate. This plan had been found to work satisfactorily; sometimes a State board had not worked so well. Directors of school districts are elected by the people. County superintendents are elected triennially by the directors of school districts. County and city superintendents may be, and have been, removed for cause by the State superintendent, or their pay can be suspended by that officer. The superintendents are thus a well organized corps of public servants; and this system has done great things for education in Pennsylvania.

Mr. HANCOCK thought that the people would not know the qualification of candidates for school director sufficiently well to elect the most suitable persons. This is the weak point in the Pennsylvania plan.

The matter was then referred to a special committee, consisting of Messrs. Hancock, Smart of Indiana, and Wickersham, with directions to report during the session.

Messrs. Newell of Maryland, Wickersham of Pennsylvania, Orr of Georgia, Bowman of Kentucky (University), Hancock of Dayton, Ohio, Tarbell of Michigan, Lemmon of Kansas, Gilmour of New York, and

Smart of Indiana were appointed a committee to consider the subject of the National Bureau of Education, its museum, and a national education fund.

The executive committee reported the following programme for the remainder of the session :

Tuesday evening, at 7.30, a paper by General John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, on "What has been done by the General Government in aid of education," to be followed by a general discussion.

Wednesday morning, at 10 o'clock, a paper by Hon. Dr. Loring, of Massachusetts, on "The object of American education," to be followed by a discussion; in the evening, a lecture by Dr. Runkle, of Boston, on "Industrial education with reference to public schools."

The Department then adjourned to meet in the evening at 7.30.

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY EVENING.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *February 4, 1879.*

The Department was called to order by the President at 7.30 P. M.

The executive committee announced that the President of the United States would receive the members of the Department to-morrow immediately after the adjournment of the morning session at 12.30 P. M.; after the reception, the members would visit the Corcoran Art Gallery and then pay their respects to Hon. Carl Schurz, Secretary of the Interior. At 2 P. M. the teachers of the District of Columbia would meet in the audience room of the church and be addressed by Hon. John W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts, and Hon. E. A. Apgar, of New Jersey. It was further announced that President Hayes would be present at the session to be held to-morrow evening; and that on Thursday morning at 10 o'clock the subject of "Education in the South" would be taken up, and the discussion opened by Hon. Gustavus J. Orr, State school commissioner of Georgia.

NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION.

The United States Commissioner of Education read a paper on "What has been done by the General Government in aid of education,"¹ which is as follows:

OPINIONS OF THE FATHERS.

Mr. President: Belief in the importance of education was not a mere Fourth of July sentiment with the fathers of the Republic. Washington, in his first annual message, observed: "Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness. In one in which the meas-

¹ In collecting the facts contained in this paper I have been aided by Capt. Rafael A. Bayley, of the Treasury Department, and also especially by Maj. S. N. Clark, for some time an assistant in this Office. The foot notes to the following paper were not read on this occasion; about three pages of statistical items reprinted here originally appeared in the annual Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1876.

ures of government receive their impressions so immediately from the sense of the community as in ours, it is proportionably essential;" and he proceeded specifically to define its benefits and importance. Again, in his eighth annual message, he recommended the establishment of a national university and of a national military academy; and in his farewell address occur those memorable words, familiar to every American:

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

His opinions he sustained by his final action in his will, making bequests to the academy in Alexandria, and to Liberty Hall Academy, also in Virginia, and by bequeathing a sum for the establishment of a national university in a central part of the United States.

In a private letter of September 1, 1796, to Hamilton, after mentioning his favorite scheme of a university at the capital of the nation, he alludes to the proposed gift to him of river improvement stock by the State of Virginia. Refusing to accept the stock as a gift to himself, he received it as a *trust* only, and conveyed it in his will for this cherished purpose in the following words:

I have not the slightest doubt that this donation (when the navigation is in complete operation, which it certainly will be in less than two years) will amount to £1200 or £1500 sterling a year, and become a rapidly increasing fund. The proprietors of the Federal City have talked of doing something handsome towards it likewise; and if Congress would appropriate some of the western lands to the same uses, funds sufficient and of the most permanent and increasing sort might be so established as to invite the ablest professors of Europe to conduct it.

The writings of John Adams, the second President, are pervaded with expressions of his appreciation of education; in his last days, "when," as he said, "blind and paralytic, I am incapable of research or search," he wrote to the committee in Kentucky as follows:

The wisdom and generosity of your legislature in making liberal appropriations in money for the benefit of schools, academies, colleges, and the university, is an equal honor to them and their constituents; a proof of their veneration for literature and science, and a portent of great and lasting good to North and South America and to the world. Great is truth, great is liberty, and great is humanity, and they must and will prevail.

Informing them that he would commend their desires to others, he proceeded to state his views of the beneficial results of the action of Massachusetts in behalf of education.

Jefferson, in his sixth annual message, advocating the continuance of the tax on imports, observed that—

Patriotism would certainly prefer its continuance and application to the great purposes of the public education, roads, rivers, and canals.

Again, in his eighth annual message, calling attention to the surplus revenue in the Treasury, he asked:

Shall it lie unproductive in the public vaults? Shall the revenue be reduced? Or shall it not rather be appropriated to the improvements of roads, canals, rivers, educa-

tion, and other great foundations of prosperity and union, under the powers which Congress may already possess, or such amendment of the Constitution as may be approved by the States ?

Mr. Jefferson's scheme of education for Virginia comprehended in his own words :

1st. Elementary schools, for all children generally, rich and poor. 2d. Colleges for a middle degree of instruction, calculated for the common purposes of life, and such as would be desirable for all who were in easy circumstances. And 3d, an ultimate grade for teaching the sciences generally and in their highest degree.

Only the university part of this scheme succeeded. His plan for elementary and secondary education was too far in advance of public sentiment in the State, and therefore failed. He continued, however, to press most earnestly his ideas upon leading minds. In a letter to Mr. Cabell, dated November 28, 1820, lamenting the low state of education in Virginia,¹ he wrote that more money from the people was not needed, but that the money raised for education "should be employed understandingly and for the greatest good." He continued :

That good requires that, while they are instructed in general competently to the common business of life, others should employ their genius with necessary information to the useful arts, to inventions for saving labor and increasing our comforts, to nourishing our health, to civil government, military science, &c.

Would it not have a good effect for the friends of this university² to take the lead in proposing and effecting a practical scheme of elementary schools, to assume the character of the friends rather than the opponents of that object ?

In a letter to Governor Nicholas, dated April 2, 1816, in which he outlined his scheme of education, he said of elementary education :

My partiality for that division is not founded in views of education solely, but infinitely more as the means of a better administration of our government and the eternal preservation of its republican principles.³

¹ Jefferson's Works, xvii, 187. In the same letter Jefferson said: "Surely Governor Clinton's display of the gigantic efforts of New York towards the education of her citizens will stimulate the pride as well as the patriotism of our legislature, to look to the reputation and safety of their own country, to rescue it from the degradation of becoming the Barbary of the Union and of falling into the ranks of our own negroes. To that condition it is fast sinking. * * * The present plan [of public education] has appropriated to primary schools forty-five thousand dollars for three years, making one hundred and thirty-five thousand dollars. I should be glad to know if this sum has educated one hundred and thirty-five poor children ? I doubt it much. And if it has, they have cost us one thousand dollars apiece for what might have been done for thirty dollars."

²The University of Virginia.

³Jefferson's Works, vi, 536. Jefferson neglected no opportunity to press the claims of education on the attention of members of the Virginia legislature. In a letter to Colonel Yancey, dated January 6, 1816, he said: "I recommend to your patronage our Central College. I look to it as a germ from which a great tree may spread itself." Further on in the same letter he reverted to the subject of education as follows: "The literary fund is a solid provision, unless lost in the impending bankruptcy. If the legislature would add to that a perpetual tax of a cent a head on the population of the State, it would set a-going at once and forever maintain a system of primary or ward

President Madison, in his inaugural address March 4, 1809, enumerating and formulating the principles which he considered necessary for the preservation of the public welfare and by which he pledged himself to be governed, specifies this: "To favor in like manner the advancement of science and the diffusion of information as the best aliment to true liberty."

In his second annual message he again and again enforced the importance of general education and of the establishment of a national university.¹

Mr. Monroe, in his inaugural address, March 4, 1817, observed:

Had the people of the United States been educated in different principles; had they been less intelligent, less independent, or less virtuous, can it be believed that we should have maintained the same steady and consistent career or been blest with the same success? While, then, the constituent body retains its present sound and healthful state everything will be safe. * * * It is only when the people become ignorant and corrupt, when they degenerate into a populace, that they become incapable of exercising the sovereignty. Usurpation is an easy attainment and an usurper soon found. The people themselves become the willing instruments of their own debasement and ruin. Let us look to the great cause and endeavor to preserve it in full force. Let us by all wise and constitutional measures promote intelligence among the people as the best means of preserving our liberties.

In his first annual message to Congress, John Quincy Adams called attention to the recommendations of his predecessors in regard to edu-

schools and an university where might be taught in its highest degree every branch of science useful in our time and country. * * * If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be. The functionaries of every government have propensities to command at will the liberty and property of their constituents. There is no safe deposit for these but with the people themselves; nor can they be safe with them without information. Where the press is free and every man able to read, all is safe."—(Works, 517.)

¹ He said: "Whilst it is universally admitted that a well instructed people alone can be permanently a free people, and whilst it is evident that the means of diffusing and improving useful knowledge form so small a proportion of the expenditures for national purposes, I cannot presume it to be unreasonable to invite your attention to the advantages of superadding to the means of education provided by the several States a seminary of learning instituted by the national legislature, within the limits of their exclusive jurisdiction, the expense of which might be defrayed or reimbursed out of the vacant grounds which have accrued to the nation within those limits." Mr. Madison's sentiments regarding the importance of public education are often expressed in his letters. Writing to W. T. Barry, of Kentucky, under date of August 4, 1822, he said: "The liberal appropriations made by the legislature of Kentucky for a general system of education cannot be too much applauded. A popular government, without popular information or the means of acquiring it, is but a prologue to a farce or tragedy, or perhaps to both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives."—(Works of Madison, iii, 276.) Again, March 29, 1826, writing to Littleton Dennis Teackle, of Maryland, congratulating him on the enactment of a law providing for primary schools in that State, he says: "The best service that can be rendered to a country, next to that of giving it liberty, is in diffusing the mental improvement equally essential to the preservation and the enjoyment of the blessing" (Works, 523.)

cation and alluded approvingly to the Military Academy at West Point. And again, after enumerating most of the specific powers of the General Government under the Constitution, he continued :

If these powers and others enumerated in the Constitution may be effectually brought into action by laws promoting the improvement of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, the cultivation of the mechanic and of the elegant arts, the advancement of literature, and the progress of the sciences, ornamental and profound—to refrain from exercising them for the benefit of the people themselves would be to hide in the earth the talent committed to our charge, would be treachery to the most sacred of trusts.

GENERAL APPROPRIATIONS OF PUBLIC LANDS.

We have not the full expression of sentiment on this point in the Congresses that antedated the Constitution, but the framers of that instrument illustrated their views in favor of education by the most practical measures. It is well known that in different colonies a policy had been carried out, in the organization of counties and towns, of setting apart certain amounts of land for education.

In 1784 Georgia adopted regulations for the survey of lands in the western part of the State, requiring that in each county 20,000 acres of land of the best quality, in separate tracts of 5,000 acres each, should be set apart for the endowment of a collegiate seminary of learning.

In the Congress of the Confederation Mr. Jefferson, in May, 1784, as chairman of the committee on the organization of the western territory, made a report which provided "that there shall be reserved the central section of every township for the maintenance of public schools, and the section immediately adjoining the same for the support of religion." After debate, the provision for setting apart the section for the support of religion was stricken out. And, as finally adopted on May 20, 1785, the ordinance provided that "there shall be reserved lot No. 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools."

So far as can be judged from the meagre record that has been preserved, the opposition was to the grant of land in aid of religion, and there was substantial unanimity in favor of the grant for education. This ordinance was finally incorporated in the ordinance of 1787.

In his first speech on Mr. Foote's resolution relative to the public lands, January 20, 1830, Daniel Webster observed :

We are accustomed to praise the lawgivers of antiquity ; we help to perpetuate the fame of Solon and Lycurgus ; but I doubt whether one single law of any lawgiver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked, and lasting character than the ordinance of 1787. * * * It fixed forever the character of the population in the vast regions northwest of the Ohio by excluding from them involuntary servitude. It impressed on the soil itself, while it was yet a wilderness, an incapacity to sustain any other than free men. It laid the interdict against personal servitude in original compact, not only deeper than all local law, but deeper also than all local constitutions. Under the circumstances then existing, I look upon this original and seasonable provision as a real good attained. We see its consequences

at this moment, and we shall never cease to see them, perhaps, while the Ohio shall flow.¹

Repeated attempts were made by the friends and advocates of slavery in Congress early in this century to repeal the ordinance of 1787, but they were always defeated, on the ground stated by Mr. Webster.

In his celebrated speech in reply to Hayne, January 26, 1830, Mr. Webster said :

Having had occasion to recur to the ordinance of 1787, * * * I am not willing now entirely to take leave of it without another remark. It need hardly be said that that paper expresses just sentiments on the great subject of civil and religious liberty. Such sentiments were common and abound in all our state papers of that day. But this ordinance did that which was not so common, and which is not even now universal; that is, it set forth and declared it to be a high and binding duty of government itself to support schools and advance the means of education, on the plain reason that religion, morality, and knowledge are necessary to good government and to the happiness of mankind.

The ordinance of 1787 was followed in 1803 by an act of Congress granting the sixteenth section of each township in the Mississippi Territory for education, and, later, by similar enactments for other territorial acquisitions, except Texas, which retained the title to her public lands under a bargain made at the time of her admission into the Union.

In 1805 the legislative council and house of representatives of the Territory of Orleans memorialized Congress in favor of a grant of lands for public schools. On February 27, 1806, the committee of the House of Representatives to which these memorials were referred submitted a favorable report, in which they said :

Your committee are of opinion it ought to be a primary object with the General Government to encourage and promote education in every part of the Union, so far as the same can be done consistent[ly] with the general policy of the nation and so as not to infringe the municipal regulations that are or may be adopted by the respective State authorities on this subject.

The benefits resulting to society in general from the establishment and support of public institutions for the education of youth and the general diffusion of science, are too well known to all discerning persons to require any particular investigation on the present occasion. The National Legislature has by several of its acts on former occasions evinced in the strongest manner its disposition to afford the means of establishing and fostering, with a liberal hand, such public institutions.²

The State of North Carolina, in 1790, ceded to the United States her "western lands," which comprised the present State of Tennessee.³ In

¹ Webster's Works, iii, 263, 264. The provision of the ordinance to which Mr. Webster referred was as follows: "There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."

² American State Papers, Public Lands, vol. 1, p. 258.

³ It will be remembered that before this, in 1785, the inhabitants west of the mountains had set up a State government under the name of Franklin. A legislature was convened, and third among the fourteen acts passed at its first (and only!) session was one for "the promotion of learning in the county of Washington." This was the first legislative action west of the Alleghanies for the encouragement of learning. Under the provisions of the act Martin Academy was founded.—(Ramsey's Annals of Tennessee, p. 294.)

1806 the United States ceded all the public lands remaining in the State to Tennessee on certain conditions, one of these being that one hundred thousand acres of land should be set apart for the use of two colleges, the same amount for the support of academies, the lands so set apart to be subject to the disposition of the legislature at not less than \$2 an acre, "and the proceeds of the sales of the lands aforesaid shall be vested in funds for the respective uses aforesaid forever. And the State of Tennessee shall moreover, in issuing grants and perfecting titles, locate six hundred and forty acres to every six miles square in the territory hereby ceded, where existing claims will allow the same, which shall be appropriated for the use of schools for the instruction of children forever."¹

The policy inaugurated by the ordinance of 1787 was not confined to the Northwest Territory. In the act approved March 3, 1803, providing for the disposal of lands belonging to the United States south of Tennessee, the reservation was made of lot No. 16 of each township and of an entire township for the purposes of common school and university education.

From that time until 1848, on the organization of each new Territory similar provisions were made for public education. In that year, on the organization of the Territory of Oregon, the quantity of land reserved for the benefit of common schools was doubled; and to each new Territory organized and State admitted since, except West Virginia, the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections of every township, one-eighteenth of the entire area, have been granted for common schools.

To each State admitted into the Union since the year 1800, except Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, and to the Territories of New Mexico, Utah, and Washington, have been granted two or more townships of land to endow a university. The States that received more than two townships, or 46,080 acres, are: Ohio, 69,120 acres; Florida and Wisconsin, 92,160 acres each; and Minnesota, 82,640 acres.

In 1862 the law granting lands to each State to endow colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts was enacted. The lands granted to the several States under this act aggregate 9,600,000 acres.

The State of Texas, on her admission into the Union, retained the title to her public land, and is consequently excepted from the grants to endow common schools and universities; but she shared the benefits of the act endowing colleges of agriculture, receiving as her share land scrip representing 180,000 acres.²

¹ United States Statutes at Large, vol. 2, p. 383.

² In 1839 the Republic of Texas set apart three leagues (13,284 acres) of land in each county for the support of a common school or academy therein, and the following year increased the grant to each county for this purpose to four leagues, or 17,712 acres. By the act of 1839, fifty leagues, or 221,400 acres, were granted for university purposes. Since her admission into the Union, and since the civil war, Texas has reaffirmed her consecration of these lands to the purpose for which they were thus designated, and added by constitutional provisions to these liberal grants in aid of education by

INDIVIDUAL GRANTS OF LAND.

Besides the general grants there have been special grants of land and buildings to institutions of learning in several States and Territories, as follows :

	Acres.
Alabama.—Lafayette Academy	480
Connecticut.—Asylum for the education of the deaf and dumb.....	23, 040
Dakota.—Holy Cross Mission	160
Florida.—Chattahoochee arsenal, buildings, lands, &c., to State.....	
Georgia.—Dahlonega arsenal, grounds, buildings, &c., for agricultural college.	10
Kentucky.—Asylum for the education of the deaf and dumb; benefit transferred to Centre College.	22, 400
Louisiana.—Pine Grove Academy (quitclaim by the United States)	4, 040
Michigan.—Public schools, Sault Ste. Marie	1. 26
Public schools, Mackinac, lot and building.....	
Minnesota.—Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society of the Protestant Episcopal Church.	80
Mississippi.—Jefferson College, outlot at Natchez.....	30
Tennessee.—Fisk University, Nashville, land and buildings.....	3. 25
West Virginia.—Storer College, four lots and buildings at Harper's Ferry.....	
Missouri.—Under acts of June 13, 1812, May 26, 1824, and January 27, 1831, confirming to inhabitants of certain towns certain outlots, commons, &c., for purposes of education, as follows :	
Portage des Sioux	298. 38
St. Charles	68. 79
St. Louis	394. 86
St. Ferdinand	33. 30
Villa A. Robert	12. 39
Carondelet.....	37. 10
Ste. Geneviève.....	561. 68

The quantity of land thus granted, aside from lots the area of which is unknown, is 51,651.01 acres.

By an act of September 4, 1841, 500,000 acres of land were granted to each of the following States, for the purpose of internal improvement, viz: Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, and Missouri; and the same grant has been made to each State since admitted into the Union, except Texas and West Virginia. The quantity of land thus granted is 9,000,000 acres. Six of the States since admitted into the Union—California, Iowa, Kansas, Oregon, Nevada, and Wisconsin—have set apart the proceeds of the sales of these lands, by provisions in their respective constitutions, for the benefit of free schools.

PROCEEDS OF SALES OF PUBLIC LANDS.

At an early period Congress inaugurated the policy of granting a portion of the net proceeds of the sales of public lands to the States in which they were situated. Thus, in 1803 an act was passed granting 3 per cent. of the net proceeds of the sales of public lands to the States, reserving the alternate sections of land granted to railroads and other corporations, together with the entire proceeds of all future sales of public lands. Texas has also made a grant of 1,000,000 acres for the endowment of a branch college of the State university for the benefit of the colored people.

cent. of such net proceeds to the State of Ohio for "laying out, opening, and making roads within the said State, and to no other purpose whatever; and an annual account of the application of the same shall be transmitted to the Secretary of the Treasury." Similar grants (in some cases of 3 and in others of 5 per cent.) have been made to the States admitted into the Union since Ohio, except to Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, in none of which did the General Government possess any public land. In some States the grants were dedicated to purposes of internal improvement, in others to education. The terms of the grant to Illinois are as follows:

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, &c.,* That the Secretary of the Treasury shall, from time to time, and whenever the quarterly accounts of public moneys of the several land offices shall be settled, pay three per cent. of the net proceeds of the lands of the United States lying within the State of Illinois which since the first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and nineteen, have been or hereafter may be sold by the United States, after deducting all expenses incidental to the same, to such person or persons as may be authorized by the legislature of the said State to receive the same; which sums, thus paid, shall be applied to the encouragement of learning within said State, in conformity to the provisions on this subject contained in the act entitled "An act to enable the people of the Illinois Territory to form a constitution and State government, and for the admission of such State into the Union on an equal footing with the original States," approved April eighteenth, one thousand eight hundred and eighteen, and to no other purpose; and an annual account of the application of the same shall be transmitted to the Secretary of the Treasury by such officer of the State as the legislature thereof shall direct; and, in default of such return being made, the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby required to withhold the payment of any sums that may then be due, or which may thereafter become due, until a return shall be made as herein required.

Approved, December 12, 1820.

By the act of April 18, 1818, it was provided that one-sixth of the sums derived from the 3 per cent. of net proceeds of public land sales should "be exclusively bestowed on a college or university." From 1821 to 1869, Illinois received under this law \$713,495.45.

The whole amount paid to the several States as percentages on the net proceeds of sales of public lands was \$6,508,819.11. How much of this sum has been devoted to educational purposes has not yet been ascertained, but the States named below have received the amounts named, respectively, which (either by the terms of the grant by Congress or by State constitutional enactment) are to be applied for the benefit of public education:

Illinois, from 1821 to 1869	\$713, 495 45
Florida, from 1847 to 1872	28, 098 07
Wisconsin, from 1850 to 1875.....	195, 423 98
Iowa, from 1849 to 1874.....	630, 627 38
Oregon, from 1866 to 1876.....	25, 927 60
Kansas, from 1868 to 1876.....	53, 626 15
Nebraska, from 1869 to 1876.....	113, 591 90
Nevada, from 1872 to 1874.....	3, 648 81

Making a total of 1, 764, 439 34

Besides this, the State of Arkansas has received from the same source \$224,473.15, which sum, by a provision of the State constitution adopted in 1868, was to be devoted to education, but respecting which the later constitution of 1875 is silent. Missouri has in like manner received under two acts, dated respectively March 6, 1820, and February 28, 1859, the sum of \$1,008,321.86. The constitution of Missouri adopted in 1875 establishes a school fund, one of the components of which is, in the words of a clause in section 6 :

Also any proceeds of the sales of public lands which may have been or may hereafter be paid over to this State (if Congress will consent to such appropriation).

Several of the States have devoted the net proceeds of the sales of swamp and saline lands to public education, but the amounts derived from these sources have not been generally ascertained.

In Ohio the amount realized from the sale of the saline grants and added to the common school fund was reported in 1850 at \$41,024; in Indiana the State school fund realized from the same source \$85,000.

The constitutions of the States of Louisiana, Mississippi (with some unimportant reservations), and Indiana contain provisions requiring that the net proceeds of the sales of swamp lands shall be used for the benefit of public education; and in several other States, as, for example, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin, the same disposition has been made under general laws, without a specific constitutional enactment. The constitution of Alabama once contained this provision; the amendment of 1875 abrogated it. It appears from the report of the State superintendent of public instruction for 1875 that up to that date the sum of \$27,340.31 had been received into the State treasury on account of sales of swamp land, but it does not appear that this amount or the income thereof had ever been used for the benefit of public education.

The amount of swamp lands granted and patented to each of the States, from the date of the first grant to June 30, 1876, is as follows: ¹

	Acres.
Ohio.....	25, 640. 71
Indiana.....	1, 256, 631. 96
Illinois.....	1, 453, 611. 67
Missouri.....	3, 185, 479. 44
Alabama.....	392, 719. 61
Mississippi.....	2, 681, 383. 16
Louisiana.....	8, 468, 964. 93
Michigan.....	5, 864, 669. 55
Arkansas.....	7, 059, 827. 68
Florida.....	10, 735, 403. 21
Wisconsin.....	3, 059, 572. 02
Iowa.....	1, 166, 917. 34
California.....	1, 308, 295. 65
Minnesota.....	1, 143, 153. 63
Total.....	47, 802, 271. 16

Official reports of the amounts received from sales of these lands and of the distribution of the proceeds are not easily accessible, and it is impracticable to present at this time any statement on these heads.

¹ Report of the Commissioner of the General Land Office, 1876.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SURPLUS REVENUE.

In 1836 there was a large sum in the Treasury of the United States, chiefly derived from the sales of public lands, which was not needed for the current expenses of the General Government, and a law was approved on June 23 which provided for a distribution of the surplus among the twenty-five States of the Union on the basis of their respective representation in Congress. Afterward, the benefit of the act was extended to Michigan, which had just been admitted into the Union. This fund, amounting to \$28,101,644.91, has since been held by the several States admitted into the Union prior to 1837, subject to call by the General Government. Several of them have devoted a part or the whole of the income realized from this fund to public education.

ALABAMA.

Of the fund referred to, Alabama received \$669,086.79, which sum was deposited in the State Bank and its branches. By the first section of an act approved February 3, 1840, the bank and its branches were required to pay yearly \$200,000 "for the purpose of aiding in the establishment of schools in the several townships of this State;" by the fifth section it was provided that no town should receive its proportion of this fund until it could be shown that a sum equal to one-third of the amount applied for had been raised by subscription; and the tenth section provided that "the annual interest of the surplus revenue deposited with this State shall be set apart to assist in the appropriation made by this act." This law was repealed January 21, 1843.

A law "to establish and maintain a system of free public schools in Alabama" was enacted February 15, 1854, the preamble to which reads as follows:

That to carry into effect that provision of our State constitution which wisely declares that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged in this State;" to realize the objects of the General Government in making grants and appropriations for the establishment of schools in each township; and to extend upon equal terms, to all the children of our State, the inestimable blessings of liberal instruction, the following system of free public schools is hereby established in this State and shall have the full force of law after the passage of this act.

The law was very elaborate. The first section of Article 1 contains provisions to create an educational fund, the first component of which was to consist of "the annual interest, at 8 per cent., on that portion of the surplus revenue of the United States deposited with this State under the act of Congress of the 23d of June, 1836."

This school law was amended in 1856 and again in 1860, but the provision respecting the interest on the surplus revenue fund was not disturbed.

The first application of the income of the surplus revenue fund for the support of schools (for 1855) was made December 1, 1854; the amount was \$53,526.94. The total income of Alabama for educational purposes in that year was \$237,515.39. Of this sum, \$74,687.60 represented the

interest at 6 per cent. on \$1,244,793.36, received up to that time from the sales of sixteenth section lands granted by the General Government for the support of schools; and \$7,767.30, the interest at 8 per cent. on a fund of \$97,091.21 derived from the sales of lands granted by the General Government in lieu of sixteenth sections which had been found to be valueless. That is to say, Alabama was able to pay \$135,981.84, considerably more than one-half of her educational expenses in that year, from the income of a fund, granted directly and indirectly by the United States, which amounted to \$1,310,971.37.

No reports of the school fund of Alabama from 1856 to 1864 have been accessible. The State superintendent of education in his report for 1865 remarks that no annual report had been issued from that office since October, 1859, "yet our system of public schools was kept up till the appointment of the provisional governor in July, 1865, although amidst the embarrassments incident to a state of fierce warfare."

At 8 per cent. interest the surplus revenue fund would have yielded \$374,688.58 in the seven years from December 1, 1854, to December 1, 1860, and it may be inferred that that sum, as well as the income from the land funds in the same period, was distributed for the support of public schools according to law.

In his report for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1869, the auditor of Alabama presents the following statement of the educational funds of the State:

Amount December 1, 1830:	
Sixteenth section fund ¹	\$1,399,343 83
Valueless sixteenth section fund	97,091 21
University fund	300,000 00
<hr/>	
Total	1,796,435 04
Amount paid in from December 1, 1860, to December 1, 1867.....	310,794 12
<hr/>	
Total.....	2,107,229 16
Amount received since December 1, 1867	209 75
<hr/>	
Aggregate	2,107,438 91

The entire principal of these several funds, and of the surplus revenue fund, was used by the State in the war of the rebellion and is returned by the auditor in this report as "educational fund indebtedness." The close of the war found Alabama with crippled resources and an empty treasury. From a statement by the superintendent of public in-

¹ There appears to be an error of \$100,000 in the printed figures of the auditor's report, which read \$1,499,343.83. In the same report he states the sixteenth section fund at \$1,710,347.70, which, diminished by \$311,003.87, the amount received between December 1, 1830, and September 30, 1863, would leave \$1,399,343.83 (instead of \$1,499,343.83) as the capital of the fund December 1, 1860. This inference is strengthened by the fact that the auditor gives \$2,107,438.91 as the aggregate of the several educational funds at the date of his report, whereas the figures as printed foot up \$2,207,438.91.

struction,¹ we learn that the State made appropriations to pay the interest on the hypothetical school funds from 1866 to that time. There is some uncertainty respecting the years 1866 and 1867; all that is definitely known being that in 1868 the legislature passed an act appropriating \$200,000 to pay the interest due the school fund prior to October 1 of that year. The amounts received were as follows:

Year.	Sixteenth section fund.	Valueless sixteenth section fund.	Surplus revenue fund.
1869	\$136, 812 59	\$7, 767 30	\$53, 526 94
1870	136, 921 74	7, 767 30	53, 526 94
1871	115, 268 85	6, 472 75	44, 605 78
1872	138, 385 36	7, 767 30	53, 526 94
1873	138, 828 46	7, 767 30	53, 526 94
1874	138, 921 56	7, 767 30	53, 526 94
1875	139, 216 02	7, 767 30	53, 526 94
Total	944, 354 88	53, 076 55	385, 787 42

By an act of the general assembly of Alabama the interest on the several educational funds has been reduced from 8 to 4 per cent. a year, so that the income from the surplus revenue fund for 1876 was but \$26,763.47. Adding the several amounts deduced for the period from the time the first apportionment was made in 1855 to 1876 inclusive (omitting the years 1861 to 1865), we have the sum of \$767,219.47 derived from the income of the surplus revenue fund by the State of Alabama for the benefit of education. Although this statement might be modified somewhat if all official documents relating to the subject were accessible, it is believed that the amount would be increased rather than diminished.

CONNECTICUT.

Connecticut² received as her distributive share of the surplus revenue fund \$764,670.60. A law was passed by the legislature of that State

¹Annual report of John M. McKleroy, superintendent of public instruction, Alabama, for the year ending September 30, 1875, p. 65.

²In Connecticut in 1686, the legislature, deeming the chartered rights of the colony to be in danger, granted to the towns of Hartford and Windsor "those lands on the north of Woodbury and Mattatuck, and on the west of Farmington and Simsbury, to the Massachusetts line north, to run west to Housatonic or Stratford River; provided it be not, or part of it, formerly granted to any particular person to make a plantation or village," in order to "preserve them from the grasp of Sir William Andros." The object of the grant, as stated by Trumbull in his History of Connecticut, was that these towns should hold the lands for the governor and company (of the colony); accordingly, after the danger was passed the governor and company claimed them again. The towns refused to give them up, and after a long and bitter controversy a compromise was made in 1726, and the lands, comprising fourteen townships, were equally divided between the government of the colony and the two towns to which they were granted in 1686, each receiving seven townships. In May, 1733, a legislative committee appointed to view the lands which had reverted to the colony recommended that there be granted "all the moneys which shall arise from the sale of

December 29, 1836, which provided that this fund should be divided among the several towns on the basis of population; that one-half the income received therefrom should be devoted to the support of public schools; and that one-half might be used by the towns for general purposes, though a majority of the voters might also devote the whole or any portion of the last half to the support of schools.

This law was amended in 1855, and since that time the towns have been required to devote the entire income of the surplus revenue fund to the support of public schools.

Many of the towns appear to have availed themselves of the provision of the law of 1836, which authorized them to appropriate for the benefit of public schools, in addition to the one-half of the income set apart for that purpose, such a proportion of the remainder as a majority of the voters might determine. Frequent reference is made, in the reports on education from 1838 to 1846, to the amount of the income used for the benefit of schools, but the specific amount is not definitely stated. Ac-

the seven townships to the towns in this colony which are now settled, to be divided to them in proportion to the list of polls and ratable estate in the year last past, to be secured and improved forever to the use of the schools kept in the several towns according to law, and that one of the fifty-three shares in each township be sequestered for the use of the school or schools in such town forever." In October, 1737, a committee to sell the lands was appointed in each county. As most of the treasurer's records prior to 1769 have disappeared, it is difficult if not impossible to ascertain how much was realized from the sales. It is known that one township, Norfolk, sold for £6824 10s., and another, Kent, for £1225 19s. The moneys received and distributed form a part of the local funds of the several towns.

In the revision of the statutes of Connecticut published in 1750, the fifth section of the "Act for appointing, encouraging, and supporting schools" provided that the local school funds created out of the avails of the sale of the seven western townships, according to the act of 1733, and distributed among the several towns and societies, are to remain a perpetual fund for the support of schools, and for any application of the interest to other purposes the principal was to be paid back into the treasury of the colony, and the town was to lose the benefit thereof afterwards.—(Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut, 1853, pp. 49-52.)

There is no means of ascertaining the amount of pecuniary benefit the schools have derived from the income of this permanent productive fund during nearly a century and a half.

When several of the States ceded the Northwest Territory to the General Government, Connecticut reserved 3,300,000 acres, and Virginia 3,700,000 acres, within the present limits of Ohio. Connecticut granted 500,000 acres of her reservation to citizens of that State whose property had been burned by the British in the revolutionary war, and sold the remainder for \$1,200,000. Before this sale several efforts were made to enact that the proceeds should be devoted to the support of the ecclesiastical establishment, and in 1793 such a law was passed, the benefits of which were to be shared alike by all denominations. This law created great dissatisfaction and was repealed the following year, and in 1795 the act was passed devoting the entire proceeds to the creation of a common school fund. This fund was loaned at 6 per cent. per annum until 1872, when the rate of interest was increased to 7 per cent. The first dividend to the schools was made in March, 1799; the total amount of dividends from that time to December 31, 1876, was \$7,316,083.91; and the capital of the fund was reported in the latter year to be \$2,044,226.54, nearly double the original amount.

cording to the reports of the secretary of the board, and later of the State superintendent, it was about \$33,000 a year. In his report dated May 7, 1839, Secretary Barnard remarked:

A second and considerable resource to meet the school expense is half the income of the "Town Deposit Fund," * * * and such portion of the remainder as the towns may appropriate to common schools. As far as heard from, about one-half of the remainder is devoted to this object, making an aggregate income of over \$33,000.

The school revenue from this source for the year 1846 was reported at \$33,441.66.

The total amount of surplus revenue deposited with the several towns was \$763,661.83, the income of which is now, according to the report of the secretary of the State board of education for 1876, about \$46,000 a year.

From a careful examination of the State reports on education and other documents, it appears that \$1,474,790.64 had been realized from the income of this fund for the benefit of public education in Connecticut between 1837 and December 31, 1876, a sum nearly twice as great as the original deposit.

DELAWARE.

In the distribution of the surplus revenue fund Delaware received \$286,751.49. In 1837 a part of this money was invested in bank stock, a part loaned to railroad companies, and \$5,000 loaned to Sussex County, the two loans being at 6 per cent. A law passed February 22, 1837, provided that the income of these investments should be equally divided among the three counties of the State; the share of New Castle County to be paid to the trustee of the school fund for the support of public schools; the share of Kent County to be devoted to public schools or to such other purposes as the levy court and court of appeals of said county might determine, and one-third of the share of Sussex County to be used for public schools and two-thirds for the support of paupers. By a subsequent law (February 12, 1845), the entire income of the share belonging to Sussex County was to be used for education.

About this time the subject of public education was receiving the earnest attention of patriotic and thoughtful men in Delaware,¹ as well

¹ In this connection the following extract from the message of Governor Comegys to the legislature, January 5, 1841, will be of interest. Referring to the subject of education, he said: "Without noticing the other arguments which might be adduced against such a system [i. e., a system of "pauper" schools, entirely supported by public funds], I will remark that, in my opinion, no plan can be devised so well suited to this country as one supported partly by a State fund and partly by the aid of the people. The privileges of instruction should be alike open to all, and every white child in the community, let his condition be what it may, should be permitted to partake of the same common benefit, enjoy the same advantages, and aspire to the same distinction. The mental culture of the youth, like every other matter of public utility, should properly be the business of the State, and not a matter of individual concernment; and in a free republic it should be regarded as an *internal* improvement, without which all others are comparatively unimportant."

as in other parts of the Union, and it is to their efforts that the cause of education in that State is indebted for the aid received from the income of the surplus revenue fund.

The exact amount of income derived from the surplus revenue fund for the benefit of public schools in Delaware cannot, in the absence of necessary official returns, be determined. In 1850 the State treasurer reported \$15,947.62 received on this account, and the same amount as paid to the trustee of the school fund; in 1852 the amount derived from the same source was \$14,147.62, and in 1869 it was \$15,139.50. These reports indicate an average income of about \$15,000 a year. It is probably safe to say that about \$585,000 were realized by Delaware from the income of the surplus revenue fund from 1837 to December 31, 1876, for the benefit of public schools. Under the Delaware laws the revenues of the school fund are applied to the support of schools for white children exclusively.

GEORGIA.

Although the Legislature of Georgia protested against the right of the General Government to divide the surplus revenue among the several States, that State nevertheless accepted her share, amounting to \$1,051,422.09, which was deposited in the Central Bank of Georgia, a State institution, which was authorized to loan it to the branch banks and to citizens of the State, the income to be applied as the legislature might direct.¹ By a law enacted December 28, 1838, it was provided "That from and after the first day of January, 1839, the funds of this State heretofore known as the academic and poor school funds be, and the same are hereby, consolidated, and, together with the interest on one-third part of the surplus revenue derived to this State from the United States and heretofore set apart for that purpose, shall compose and constitute a general fund for common schools for the State of Georgia."²

By a law enacted December 10, 1840, the name common school fund was again changed to poor school fund, and its benefits could be shared only by those children between the ages of eight and sixteen years whose poverty was certified to by the justices of the peace of the several districts.³ In 1843 "An act to provide for the education of the poor" was passed. By this act 1,733 shares of stock of the Bank of Georgia, 890 shares of stock of the Bank of Augusta, "and all the available assets of the Central Bank, after the payment of its debts," were set apart as a permanent educational fund.⁴ In an act dated January 22, 1852, the educational fund was stated at 1,833 shares of Bank of Georgia stock. 890 shares of Bank of Augusta stock, 186 shares of stock of Georgia Railroad and Banking Company (representing altogether a par value of \$290,900), the net available assets of the Central Bank, and whatever

¹ Georgia Session Laws, 1836, p. 262.

² Session Laws, 1838, p. 257, *seq.*

³ Session Laws, 1840, pp. 61-65.

⁴ Session Laws, 1843, pp. 43, 44.

balance might remain of \$30,000 appropriated to hold a State convention.¹ In 1858 the sum of \$100,000 a year was appropriated from the earnings of the Western and Atlantic Railroad for the benefit of schools, and it was provided that a sinking fund should be created to redeem certain bonds of the State, and that in lieu thereof 6 per cent. bonds should be issued which should form a permanent educational fund, the State pledging itself to pay the interest annually for the benefit of education.² In accordance with the provisions of this law, bonds to the amount of \$350,000 were issued³ in the years 1859 and 1860. It will be observed that this amount corresponds very nearly with the one-third of the surplus revenue set apart as an educational fund by the law of 1838, and it may be regarded as substantially the same fund through all its mutations.

In the absence of official reports on the finances of Georgia (which, until 1840, were bound up with the session laws of each year, but have since been discontinued), it is impossible to state, even approximately, the amount realized for the benefit of education in that State, from the income of the surplus revenue fund. According to the comptroller general's report for 1840, the amount appropriated for education under the act of 1838 to that time was \$100,646.89. From this should be deducted the income of the academic and poor school funds, which together yielded \$21,509.39 in 1839, according to the report of the State treasurer for that year, and about the same amount in 1840. This would leave \$57,632.11 as the income of the surplus revenue for those two years; and by referring again to the report of the comptroller general for 1840, we find that \$57,527.64 were actually received from the Central Bank on account of the educational fund in that period. We have no data by which to determine whether this annual income of about \$28,763 a year was realized from 1841 to 1859 or not, but it is not unfair, perhaps, to assume that it was; if so, we have a total amount of about \$604,040 received from the income of the surplus revenue fund from 1839 to 1859 inclusive, to which should be added the interest at 6 per cent. on \$150,000 in bonds, issued in November, 1859, which appears to have been paid when due, November 15, 1860, making \$613,040.

No interest has been paid on the \$350,000 in State bonds belonging to the educational fund since 1860.

ILLINOIS.

Of the \$477,919.14 surplus revenue fund received by Illinois, the sum of \$335,592.32 was at once added to the common school fund, on which 6 per cent. interest is paid by the State. The amount of interest realized from January 29, 1837, when the first amount (\$16,979.56) devoted

¹ Session Laws, 1851-'52, p. 1, *seq.*

² Session Laws, 1858, pp. 49-51.

³ Report of the State School Commissioner, 1871, p. 13.

to education was received, to November 30, 1877, was \$818,794. The greater part of this has been used for the payment of teachers, but a portion is comprised in the county school fund, which amounted to \$348,285.75 in 1876.

INDIANA.

Indiana received as her share of the surplus revenue fund \$860,254.44, of which sum she set apart \$573,502.96 for public school purposes. Of this sum \$567,126.16 were at once distributed among the counties, which were authorized to loan the same, on real estate security, at 7 per cent. interest. Subsequently, the remainder, \$6,376.80, was also distributed. In 1873 the rate of interest on loans from this fund was advanced to 8 per cent. This applied to all loans made after March 8 of that year; and in his report, dated November 1, 1874, the State superintendent estimated that two-thirds of the whole amount was at that time bearing interest at the rate of 8 per cent. a year. The data accessible do not admit of an absolutely correct calculation, but reckoning interest on \$567,126.16 from June 30, 1837, to June 30, 1875, at 7 per cent., and on \$573,502.96 from June 30, 1875, to June 30, 1877, at 8 per cent., we have the sum of \$1,640,014.88 as representing the aid received for public schools in Indiana from the income of the surplus revenue fund. This is rather below than above the real amount. The income of that portion of the surplus revenue fund set apart for educational purposes in Indiana cannot be used for any other purpose without a change in the State constitution, and it may therefore be regarded as permanent.

KENTUCKY.

In the distribution of the surplus revenue fund Kentucky received \$1,433,757.39, and, February 23, 1837, passed an act setting apart \$1,000,000 thereof for a school fund; but as three only of the four instalments provided for by the act of Congress of June 23, 1836, were paid to the States, the Kentucky legislature modified the law above mentioned the following year, reducing the grant for a school fund to \$850,000, on which the State guaranteed 5 per cent. interest. No general system of public schools was established for several years, and the interest as it accumulated was invested from time to time in State bonds bearing 6 per cent. interest, except \$65,847.36 paid in 1839 for 735 shares of stock representing a par value of \$73,500, in the Bank of Kentucky, the (estimated) dividends on which were \$5,880 a year.

According to the report of the superintendent of public instruction for 1842, the public school fund at that date was constituted as follows:

State bonds bearing 5 per cent. interest	\$350,000
State bonds bearing 6 per cent. interest	67,500
Bank stock	73,500

Total 991,000

Interest continued to accumulate on the bonds until 1848, when.

through the strenuous efforts of Hon. Robert J. Breckinridge, who became superintendent of public instruction in 1847, the arrearages were funded in a 5 per cent. State bond for \$308,268.42, dated December 20, 1848. The expenses of the school system for 1849 amounted to only \$16,995.69, and the balance due the school fund on account of interest for 1848, together with the income for 1849, amounting to \$101,001.49, was funded in 1850 at 5 per cent. The amount of the school fund (all derived from the surplus revenue) December 31, 1850, was \$1,400,270.01; the income from interest on State bonds was \$67,013.50, and from dividends on bank stock (estimated) \$6,000, making a total of \$73,013.50 a year. The total expense of the school system for three years (1847 to 1849) was \$88,958.04, of which \$85,212.97 were paid for the support of the schools, and but \$3,745.07 for all the expenses of administration, including salaries, travelling expenses, printing, postage, &c. The income since 1850 has amounted to about \$73,000 a year, and the total income from 1851 to 1877 was about \$1,241,000.

LOUISIANA.

Louisiana received \$637,225.51 as her quota of the surplus revenue fund. What part of it was set apart for the support of schools or whether any thereof was at first distributed in any proportion for this purpose I have not had time to ascertain. The first mention of the fund that I have discovered is in the school law of 1853, section 3 of which provides that the income of the United States trust fund shall be considered a part of the income of the current school fund. On this latter fund the State seems to have paid interest at the rate of 6 per cent. for the support of schools. In 1853 and in the four years following this interest amounted to \$28,795.14 annually. The same amount was probably expended in 1857, in 1858, and in 1859.

I have not investigated whether the school fund of Louisiana was or was not expended for other purposes during the years 1861 to 1865; if so expended, the State either must have replaced it for its original uses or guaranteed the old income to the schools, because the school laws of 1867 mention the "free school fund" once more and state that the annual income therefrom was \$28,795.14, as before.

I am not satisfied with this meagre account of the surplus revenues loaned to Louisiana, but must plead want of time for this lack of knowledge.

MAINE.

In the distribution of the surplus revenue fund Maine received \$955,838.25, and divided it, except \$6,000, among the several cities, towns, and plantations of the State. A law enacted March 8, 1837, provided that "any city, town, or organized plantation is hereby authorized to appropriate its portion of the surplus revenue or any part thereof for the same purposes that they have a right to [appropriate] any money in the treasury from taxation; also to loan the same in such manner as they deem expedient on receiving safe and ample security therefor."

A number of the towns bestowed the surplus revenue fund or its income on public schools, but as no returns of the yearly distribution of this fund are required of the towns it is impossible to ascertain the total amount used for education. Partial returns for the years 1837 to 1839 show that \$659,598 were thus expended.

At the time the surplus revenue was divided among the towns of Maine, the boundary between that State and New Brunswick was in dispute, and an attempt to take a census of the inhabitants of the "Mada-waska townships," comprising the northeastern portion of the State and of the present county of Aroostook, was defeated by the arrest by the New Brunswick authorities of the agent appointed to make the enumeration. The State treasurer, estimating the population of those townships (which were then unorganized), held back their proportion (\$6,000) in the distribution. It remained in the State treasury until 1861, when \$5,000 of it were set apart as a separate school fund, the yearly income of which, at 6 per cent., is allotted to those towns for the support of schools. The amount thus realized from the enactment of the law to and including the year 1877 is about \$5,190.

MARYLAND.

Maryland received \$955,838.25 in the distribution of the surplus revenue, and, after deducting \$274,451 to pay interest on the public debt of the State, enacted that the annual interest, at 5 per cent. a year on the remainder (\$681,387.25), should be devoted to "the support and encouragement of common school education." In 1840 it was provided that \$1,000 of this income (the whole amount of which is \$34,069.36 a year) should be devoted to the education of indigent blind persons.

It appears, therefore, that Maryland had realized from the income of her share of the surplus revenue, from June 30, 1837, to June 30, 1877, about \$1,362,774.40 for the benefit of public education.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Massachusetts¹ received as her proportion of this fund the sum of

¹ Governor Edward Everett, in his address to the Massachusetts Legislature, January 12, 1837, called attention to the surplus revenue fund accruing to Massachusetts. The State, by an act dated April 4, 1836, had subscribed \$1,000,000 to the Western Railroad. Governor Everett said: "Among the modes of disposing of the Commonwealth's share of the surplus, it will deserve consideration whether a portion of it would not be wisely applied to redeem the faith of the State pledged by this subscription.

* * * * *

"There are other enterprises of improvement and public objects of high interest which will doubtless receive due consideration; a discussion of which, on the present occasion, might seem uncalled for. I will only ask permission to observe that I am sure the highest of them all will not be forgotten—the intellectual improvement of the people. Massachusetts owes what she is mainly to the provision made by our fathers, from the earliest days and out of slender means, for the education of her youth. The constitution has devoted one whole chapter to this subject, and has made it the ex-

\$1,338,173.58, two-thirds of which (except \$2,500) were distributed among the towns, which were authorized to "apply the money so deposited with them, or the interest upon the same, to those public objects of expenditure for which they may now lawfully raise and appropriate money, and to no other purpose."¹

Many of the towns bestowed the surplus revenue fund or its income on the public schools, but, the records of town grants being inaccessible, it is impossible to show the entire amount expended in that way. A careful examination of the annual reports of the State board of education from 1838 to 1877 shows that the total amount in that period was about \$280,440; but this is doubtless considerably under the real sum.

The \$2,500 mentioned as reserved from the distribution to towns was constituted an Indian school fund, and the income at 6 per cent. has been regularly expended for the support of Indian schools. It has amounted altogether to \$6,000.

The cause of public education in Massachusetts has, therefore, been aided pecuniarily to the amount of at least \$286,440 from the interest of a portion of this grant by the General Government.

MISSOURI.

The share of Missouri in the distribution of the surplus revenue fund was \$382,335.30, and the whole amount was set apart February 6, 1837, to constitute, with the proceeds of the saline grants, a permanent school fund.²

The fund was invested in stock of the Bank of Missouri, and for many years the income was variable, averaging for the first eleven years about 5½ per cent. a year. The fund is now invested in State bonds bearing 6 per cent. interest.

Allowing interest at an average rate of 5½ per cent. from June 30, 1837, to June 30, 1872, and at 6 per cent. from June 30, 1872, to June 30, 1877, we find that \$842,193.48 have been realized by Missouri from her share of the surplus revenue fund for the benefit of public schools.

As the surplus revenue fund of Missouri is made a part of the public school fund by constitutional provisions, it is unlikely to be diverted to any other object.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

This State received \$669,086.79 in the distribution of the surplus revenue. The money, except that inuring to communities not then incorporated into towns, was divided among the several towns as in Maine and Massachusetts, and with the same privilege of devoting the whole

press duty of all legislatures to foster the colleges and schools. I own I can imagine no worthier use which can be made of a portion of this fund than that of rendering education better, cheaper, and, consequently, more accessible to the mass of the community."

¹ Massachusetts Session Laws, 1837, chap. 85.

² Missouri Session Laws, 1837, p. 137.

or a part to the support of public schools. The amount reserved by the State on account of unincorporated places was paid to them, to be used for the support of public schools. The exact amount of the surplus revenue fund used for educational purposes by the towns cannot be determined, but the basis for a fairly correct approximation has been found. From 1856 to 1872, the amount of this fund used for schools each year was separately reported by each town which made a return of its educational expenditures. The entire sum thus reported was \$28,844.95, an average of \$1,802.81 each year. Before and after the period named no separate report of this fund was made, but it is probable that the sum expended each year for schools did not materially vary from the average above given; so that the expenditure from this source from June, 1837, to June, 1872, would amount to \$73,715.21.

NEW JERSEY.

New Jersey received \$764,070.60 of the surplus revenue, and divided the money among the several counties of the State, and it was by them loaned on proper security. The yearly interest, divided among the towns of each county, may be used by them in current expenditures for any purpose for which they are authorized by law to expend other town funds. It was undoubtedly expected that the income of these county funds would be generally applied to the support of public schools; and, though the reports of the State superintendent of education prior to the year 1852 do not classify the funds expended by the towns in addition to the amount received from the State, there is sufficient evidence that a considerable portion of them was derived from the surplus revenue each year from 1837 to the year mentioned. In the year 1852 the State superintendent, in enumerating the town expenditures for support of schools, included an item of \$23,322.66 "from other sources, being chiefly the interest on surplus revenue." A similar item, the amount varying from about \$24,000 to about \$50,000, is included in the report for each year from that time to 1867, when for the first time the amount from surplus revenue is separately stated. It was \$26,531.54 for that year. From August 31, 1866, to August 31, 1877, it amounted to \$349,313.18, being an average of \$31,755.74 a year. Estimating the yearly expenditure from this source for education for the years 1853 to 1877, both inclusive, on this basis, we have \$793,894.50. It is highly probable that the yearly average from 1837 to 1852 was more than one-half as large as between the latter date and 1877, but estimating it at \$15,000 a year we have, to add to the above, \$225,000, making a total of \$1,018,894.50 realized from the income of the surplus revenue for the benefit of the public schools of New Jersey.¹

UNSYSTEMATIC CHARACTER OF THE AID AFFORDED EDUCATION.

In the distribution of the surplus in the United States Treasury it

¹The pressure of other work has prevented the completion of this inquiry with reference to the other States which participated in the benefit of the distribution of surplus revenue.

will be observed that there was no condition that it should be used for the promotion of education, when received by the respective States. Moreover, in distributing the public domain, as already noticed, no one can fail to observe how unequal was the distribution as respects population. On this point there was a constant struggle.

The State of Maryland made a special effort to secure equalization of grant. Other States criticised her action. The struggle manifested itself in Congress in various forms. Many propositions were made by leading men; resolutions were offered and referred to committees.

In the Nineteenth Congress a report was made by Mr. Strong, from the Committee on Public Lands, February 24, 1826, on the resolution "to inquire into the expediency of appropriating a portion of the net annual proceeds of the sales and entries of the public lands exclusively for the support of common schools, and of apportioning the same among the several States in proportion to the representation of each in the House of Representatives." The committee observed:

The resolution under consideration proposes to appropriate a portion of the proceeds of the public lands to a new and specific object: to convert it into a permanent fund for the sole use and support of common schools in the several States, and to divide this fund among the several States in proportion to the representation of each in this House. * * * A township of land has been given to the "nation's guest." Large portions of land have from time to time been given to other individuals and to public institutions. Now, if it be good faith to give away the lands from which the revenue pledged to the sinking fund is derived, it cannot be bad faith to appropriate a portion, at least, of their proceeds for the support of common schools.

Unless children are taught how to govern themselves and how to be governed by law, they will rarely make good citizens. It may be objected that the Constitution does not give to Congress the power to appropriate the proceeds of these lands for the purposes of education. The question is not whether Congress can superintend and control the private schools in the several States, but whether Congress can appropriate the proceeds of these lands for the use and support of those private schools, to be applied by and under the exclusive authority of the several States.

Common schools are the nurseries of youth; they are the most universal, as they are the most effectual, means of opening the mind, of giving reason the mastery, and of fixing in habits of sober industry the rising generations of men. Can, then, a portion of the proceeds of the national domain be expended in any way which will more directly or forcibly come home to the wants and wishes, the business and bosoms, of the people?

In further discussing this measure, some of its obvious advantages must not be overlooked. It will give some aid to all in the acquisition of learning. It will give efficient aid to the destitute, without which aid they must be left uneducated and in ignorance. It will diffuse, in the quickest and cheapest way, the greatest amount of useful knowledge among the people. It will tend as much as anything else to make young men and old respectable, efficient, good citizens. These considerations, it would seem, cannot fail to awaken the attention of the State legislatures. They surely are not now to learn for the first time that the success of good government, the independ-

ence of the States, and the permanency of their political institutions are vitally connected with a well educated yeomanry. Besides, the fact of there being a permanent fund, the interest of which is to be applied to the glorious purpose of training up the young mind in the way of knowledge and morals, will, in some degree at least, excite in these guardians of State rights a just emulation in promoting, to every practicable end, the great cause of common education.

It is a singular fact in the history of our species that nowhere has common education made any considerable progress among the people without the efficient aid and protection of the government. There is, generally, a prevailing indifference among the illiterate to the cultivation of the mind; were it not so, the poor man, though learned, can rarely instruct his children, because his time is necessarily occupied in earning their bread; and the ignorant man, though rich, cannot do it, because he is himself untaught.

* * * * *

Are not, then, the National and State Legislatures under the strongest obligations to the people of this country to provide and apply the means whereby every child may have the opportunity, in these nurseries of the mind, of acquiring some knowledge of letters and of the various duties he owes to his country and his God?

* * * * *

Common education can be estimated only in proportion as its necessities and advantages are felt; and as the same number of children as there are dollars annually distributed from this fund may receive, with proper management, about six months' common schooling, will not the people, witnessing these moral and intellectual improvements, look with intenser interest to their respective State Legislatures as the immediate dispensers of these benefits? And will not the Legislature of each State, viewing the increase of common schools and the augmented amount of schooling, and perceiving their benign and salutary effects upon the mind, morals, and habits of the rising generation, look with increased steadiness to the Federal head whence these blessings flow?

* * * * *

The committee are not unaware that there is, in this pecuniary connection, a seeming tendency to produce an undue dependence of the States upon the Federal Government. They are persuaded, however, that a little examination will dissipate this cause of alarm. The strength of the tie and the degree of the dependence, it is fair to presume, will always be in exact proportion to the actual benefits resulting from the proposed fund. If the fund be not beneficial, it can have no influence, good or bad. Suppose great benefits to flow from it, what are they? Shall we hereafter look for them in the increased ignorance and subdued spirits of our fellow citizens, or shall we find and feel them everywhere in the rapid progress of education and in the improvement of mind and morals? If it be true, as it unquestionably is, that the safety and success of our political institutions depend absolutely upon the intelligence and virtue of the people, and if it be true, also, that the direct effect of the proposed fund will be to increase that intelligence and virtue, then it is equally true that there can be no undue dependence of the people or the States upon the Federal Government. As these benefits increase, so also will increase the ability and means of detecting and resisting the encroachments of power. Although each part of our political system is dependent upon the other, yet there is a wide difference between that dependence which springs from mean or guilty motives and that which has for its end the union and strength, the happiness and glory, of a generous people. And whatever other men may be disposed to do, that portion of the people to whom our governments, whether Federal or State, in prosperity or adversity, must look for protection and defence, if intelligent and virtuous, will never do slavish homage or tamely surrender their liberties to any earthly power.

The proposed measure, the committee are also induced to believe, will have a most salutary effect in respect to the public domain itself and all the great interests con-

nected with it. There is much apathy in the public mind in regard to the value and importance of these lands. Strong indications are manifested to reduce their price, and to bring the whole into market as speedily as practicable, and without any reference to the existing demand for them. Should this happen, the consequence will be to depreciate the fair average value of land, whether cultivated or uncultivated, by putting more into the market than could be occupied perhaps in fifty or an hundred years to come; to fling the best of them into the hands of moneyed men and speculators by their cheapness and the prospect of gain, and to retard cultivation and population by the high prices at which they would be held. The committee think the proposed measure will produce a counteracting interest; an interest which, while it guards the public domain from sudden depreciation on the one hand and from speculation on the other, will induce a more rapid and a sounder population.

* * * * *

The foundation of our political institutions, it is well known, rests in the will of the people, and the safety of the whole superstructure, its temple and altar, daily and hourly depends upon the discreet exercise of that will. How, then, is this will to be corrected, chastened, subdued? By education—that education the first rudiments of which can be acquired only in common schools. How are the millions of American citizens to be enabled to compare their government and institutions with those of other countries; to estimate the civil and political privileges and blessings they enjoy; and to decide, understandingly, whether they ought or ought not to protect and defend the Constitution under which they live?—by education. Has the Legislature of each State provided all the means that are wanted to this end? Is there nothing more to be done? Are all sufficiently educated? There are some wealthy men and many a poor man in our land whose family and fireside have never yet been cheered by the light and benefits of common education. Is there, then, no necessity for the proposed measure? Its advantages must be admitted. That there are heads and hearts among us waiting for instruction, cultivation, improvement, will not be denied; and that the means are still wanted (through the inability or indifference of individuals and of the States) to accomplish this great purpose cannot be doubted. Why then delay?

Again, in the Twenty-first Congress, Mr. Hunt, from the select committee appointed to consider the expediency of appropriating the net proceeds of the sales of public lands among the several States and Territories for the purposes of education, made a report, from which I cull the following:

The domain thus vested in the United States was upon no contingency or event to revert back to the States making the cessions, or to become the separate property of individual States. It was expressly made a *common fund*, and a trust and authority were reposed in Congress for two general purposes.

* * * * *

The numerous donations of public land for the purpose of education, and the appropriations of the road and canal fund to the new States, being a part of the proceeds of sales, have long been considered by different administrations as the exercise of power authorized by the Constitution. If Congress can make direct grants of land to literary institutions or to individual States, the power of granting the money arising from the sales would seem to be necessarily implied. The present resolution calls for no power of Congress which has not always been exercised, neither does it involve the right and policy of raising money by taxation and transmitting the same to the States, but merely requires the equitable distribution of the proceeds of a common fund already belonging to the people. The Constitution, which *authorizes Congress to dispose of the territory belonging to the United States*, gives an express power over the public domain, and implies the power to sell and to receive the purchase money, and

the consequent power to grant and appropriate the same for all purposes authorized by the Constitution.

* * * * *

In relation to the application of the money arising from the public lands, the committee are well satisfied that if it be limited to any single object, the permanent and general diffusion of intelligence is so important not only to the prosperity and honor of the country but essential to the very existence and preservation of our republican institutions, that it presents the first and strongest claim to the attention and patronage of government. The promotion of other objects, however, is of so great and general importance that it is worthy of consideration whether some latitude of discretion should not be intrusted to the legislatures of the different States to select objects interesting to themselves, to which their portion of the revenue might, in whole or in part, be applied. As the resolution is limited to education only, the committee recommend the accompanying bill for that purpose.

In February, 1833, Mr. William Cost Johnson, of Maryland, presented the following resolutions in the House of Representatives :

Resolved, That each of the United States has an equal right to participate in the benefits of the public lands, the common property of the nation.

Resolved, That each of the States in whose favor Congress has not made appropriations of land for the purposes of education is entitled to such appropriations as will correspond, in a just proportion, with those heretofore made in favor of other States.

Resolved, That the committee of — report a bill making an increased appropriation of the public lands, the property of the United States, yet unappropriated, to all the States and Territories of the Union, for the purposes of free schools, academies, and the promotion and diffusion of education in every part of the United States.

In support of these resolutions, Mr. Johnson said :

It must be apparent to all that, as a common property, designed in the articles of cession to be granted for the benefit of all the States, and not for the partial benefit of a part of the States, any mode of distribution or appropriation which is partial in its tendency operates an injustice to the rest, in direct violation both of the language and intention of the acts of cession. So far as they have been or may be appropriated for objects of national defence, so far as they have been sold and the proceeds paid into the Treasury, the Government has acted faithfully ; but, so far as they have been applied to State and not national purposes, so far as they have been granted to particular States for specific purposes, when they might have been granted for the like purposes to all the States, the Government has acted in direct violation of the very language and spirit of the compacts.

The Government has acted in its unmeasured liberality toward the Western States with great injustice to the old States, an injustice which is doubly severe upon those old States whose limits are comparatively small and whose means of revenue are not very great, in giving immense bounties of the public domain for specific, and local, and State purposes.

The Government has given to the Western States one thirty-sixth part of the public lands for the purposes of education in those States and Territories in which the lands are situated, and thus has been carved out of the general property of the whole nation, which Congress solemnly pledged itself to appropriate only for the benefit of all, this vast amount for the local and exclusive benefit of a part. Have not the old States an equal—I might say truly a superior—claim to a like proportionate appropriation of the public property for the same purpose? Is not education equally as important in one region of the nation as it is in another? And is it not as expensive in the old as it is in the new States? Can this Government, I will ask, consider itself as acting in honest and just faith as long as it omits to make similar appropriations of the public lands to the old States for purposes of education? The appropriations have

been made for State, not national, purposes; they were of a character that might have been made to all the States. Is it in good faith to restrict them to a part only?

The number of acres which the Government has given to the new States east of the Mississippi amounts to 7,903,903. If the same policy be pursued with the territory west of the Mississippi (as it ought to be, provided it be extended to the old States also), the number of acres which will be appropriated in that region will be 6,666,663;¹ making an aggregate of 14,570,566 acres, which, at \$2 per acre, will make the enormous amount of \$29,153,132 given exclusively to a particular section of the country from the common property of the nation.

This calculation is placing the land at the low price of \$2 per acre (much of it has sold for \$10, and intrinsically, on an average, it is worth, I believe, more than five), and Seybert has shown that before the reduction of the Government price it averaged more than \$2 per acre; which will make, when the western country shall have been settled, land worth, perhaps, seventy or eighty millions of dollars of the general property of the nation which Congress will have given for local State benefits.

In addition to this vast amount of land which has been given to the Western States for purposes of education, they have received two and a half per cent. on the sales of the public lands, and large grants for purposes of internal improvements. The amount of money which the General Government has expended in the purchase and management of the public lands, including interest thereon, is upwards of \$49,000,000. In 1831 it was \$48,077,551, including interest. This amount has been chiefly paid by the old States, and much of their wealth has been drawn from them, while the amount of money which had been paid into the Treasury from the sales of the public lands up to 1831 is but \$37,272,713; therefore the National Treasury had not, at that time, been reimbursed, by including interest, by \$10,804,838. And yet this Congress is gravely asked—by whom? not the people, but by a few honorable members—to reduce the price of the western lands.

Nor should Congress refuse to grant to the old States their fair distributive share of the public lands for the purpose of education; and, if they are true to themselves, they will insist upon the grant. Maryland contains 8,960,000 acres; at the ratio of one thirty-sixth part, she would be entitled to 298,665 acres, which, at \$2 per acre, would amount to the sum of \$597,330, as a perpetual fund for common schools and academies. United with her present school fund, this amount would enable her to diffuse more generally the benefits of education throughout the entire State. By the adoption of such a policy, the like benefits would result to every State in the Union. Pennsylvania would be entitled to 995,732 acres, and all the rest of the old States to an amount proportionate to their limits. But I shall allude to this subject more particularly in another part of my remarks. In 1821 the Legislature of Maryland passed the following resolutions:

Resolved by the General Assembly of Maryland, That each of the United States has an equal right to participate in the benefit of the public lands, the common property of the Union.

Resolved, That the States in whose favor Congress have not made appropriations of land for the purposes of education are entitled to such appropriations as will correspond, in a just proportion, with those heretofore made in favor of the other States.

Another resolution was passed inviting the attention of the Legislatures of the several States to the subject, and also their representatives in Congress.

These resolutions were accompanied by a report from Mr. Maxcy to the senate of Maryland, which, for clear, irresistible reasoning and enlightened policy, is second to no report that has ever been made on the subject. If the report of Mr. Clay (I mean the American statesman) on the subject of the western lands should be decided more

¹This is predicated upon the calculation that Louisiana contains, according to Mr. Seybert's estimate, 200,000,000 acres; but it contains 750,000,000 by Senator Clay's estimate, which would more than double the amount.

able, it would be for the reason that Plato gave why one of Demosthenes's orations was better than the rest, "because it was *the longest*." Most of the States gave favorable responses to the resolutions of Maryland, and the subject was brought before Congress. Congress delayed action upon the ground that to grant lands to the old States might, for the time, retard the payment of the national debt, and derange, in some degree, the sinking fund system; but I will, before I conclude, allude more particularly to the propositions and reports made in relation to the public lands as a fund for education. That debt has been paid off; the nation is free from debt; so that argument cannot now be used. And Congress should now pay a debt of gratitude—no, sir, not a debt of gratitude, but a debt of justice—to the old States. Justice is all that they ask, and it is what they have a right to require.

On this part of the subject I shall offer one other extract, and that is from the proceedings of the Legislature of Ohio: and I cannot withhold my admiration of the sound and firm grounds which it has taken on this subject. A State which but forty years ago was a vast wilderness, by the bounty of the General Government and its soil, with an enterprising population, is now the third State in the Union in population and power, and already

Leads

*New colonies forth, that towards the western seas
Spread like rapid flame among the autumnal trees.*

The resolutions were passed on the 2d February, 1838, and the part which I shall read is as follows:

We do, therefore, declare that the public lands of the United States are the property of the whole Union, held in trust for the States; that this trust can only be answered by giving to all the States the proper proceeds of their value; that we protest against any change in the long established system of managing the national estate, as it was devised by the Congress of the Revolution and sustained by every administration of the Government till the present; and we maintain that the lands shall be sold at their proper price for the benefit of all the people of the States, not squandered and confiscated for the benefit of a few; and we also maintain that the six hundred millions of acres yet unsold are the great inheritance of the future people of these States, and that any faithless consent of this generation to abandon that inheritance to the Federal Government, to be sold piecemeal and the money used as common revenue, would be to make that Government more powerful and to foster extravagance in public expenditure, while it would lessen the rights of the States *and deprive them of this unfailing means of advancing the condition of their people for centuries to come.*

For the reputation of the new States I could wish that such sentiments were more generally prevalent among them. And I may as well say at this time that my remarks in relation to appropriations of land made by the General Government to the Western States for the promotion of education apply but in a very limited degree to Kentucky and Tennessee. Kentucky has received a small portion to aid some of her eleemosynary institutions, and Tennessee has received about two hundred thousand acres for academies and colleges.

The views taken by the Legislature of Ohio are worthy of that enterprising and enlightened State, and commend themselves to the emulation of the older, less fortunate, and less prosperous States of the Union; they show practical intelligence and sagacious wisdom; they look beyond the present and point to the distant future. Instead of treating and using the vast public domain as a fund for political gambling and political bribery, instead of throwing it out as a lure to the ambitious or the avaricious, as is too much the case in the present day, how much better would it be for the present and future generations if it were set apart as a sacred fund, to be used for educational purposes, and no other; not to be touched for any other purpose in either peace or war. If the whole proceeds were set apart for that exclusive purpose, with the privilege of the States to invest one-half of their distributive shares in works of internal improvement, first guaranteeing to the Government, as the agent of all (for I would have the present land system of the General Government continued), the legal interest of the State on the amount invested in improvements, to be faithfully paid into the school

fund of the State, this warfare between the State and General Governments would cease, this conflict between different sections of the Union would end, and a policy as enduring as our institutions would be established, and our institutions would be made enduring by this very policy.

"A despotism," says Montesquieu, "is supported by fear; a republic, by virtue." Our institutions can only be supported by the wide diffusion of moral education among all conditions of the people. Those who limit their views to the present and close their eyes to the future are unsafe agents of the people. The lifetime of an individual is but a day in the history of a nation.

Congress should legislate as if this nation and its free institutions were to be lasting; it is only by viewing them so that they will be made perpetual; to look not alone at ourselves, selfish as human nature has formed us, but, in the language of Bulwer, to look at the eternal people, the teeming millions who are to crowd these States, to draw their support from its soil, and who must sink into ignorance, into anarchy, or into despotism, if they have not the means and facilities of early and progressive education.

* * * * *

If we contrast the condition of education in most of the nations of Europe with the limited systems in this nation, we will be mortified to find how far we are behind the former. It is true that Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, and one or two other States have adopted a liberal and general system of public schools; but even in those States there is much room for improvement; and although in Connecticut one-third of the population of 275,000 attend the free schools, still the foundations of education should be extended deeper and wider. In most of the other States the system of education is most culpably deficient. Although the system of education has been greatly improved since, yet by a report made seven or eight years ago it was stated that "this country contains more than four millions of children who ought to be under the influence of common schools. But by a recent estimate it appears that more than a million of children are growing up in the United States in ignorance and without the means of education; of these, 250,000 are said to be in Pennsylvania. An estimate made in 1828 showed that, of the children of New Jersey, 11,743 were entirely destitute of instruction, and 15,000 adults unable to read."

* * * * *

As in State governments, so in the national, prejudices may be created; timid apprehensions may alarm; worse considerations than either may influence individuals in opposing a measure to appropriate the public domain for the diffusion of education among the States; but when such a policy shall, and I believe and hope will, prevail, the individual, if it should be possible that one such could be found in Congress, who would attempt to divert that fund, once set apart, from its munificent purpose, would be regarded as a more barbarous heathen than he who would in other times have wildly rushed into the sanctuary of the solemn temples of the gods and extinguished their vestal lights.

By the report of the committee appointed by the Legislature of Georgia, "of 83,000 children who ought to be in school, but 25,000 have the advantage of any education whatever."

Thus Georgia, the mother of two powerful and wealthy States, presents the sad picture of allowing 58,000 children to grow up within her limits in the most cruel and profound ignorance; a State which reserved in her articles of cession her just proportion of the public lands. When was the voice of that State heard in this hall in favor of a distributive share of the public lands for education, which she so much requires?

I have seen no report from North Carolina; and I deeply regret that there is not a feeling of reciprocity between the States and the National Government to furnish each with all their reports and public proceedings; for, alike in State or the National Legislature, its members are embarrassed in their public deliberations from a want of access to useful reports. But North Carolina must greatly require an improved system of education; for you will find in the journals of this House, in the evidence in

relation to the contested election from North Carolina, in the first session of the Twenty-second Congress, that, out of one hundred and eleven voters who gave testimony, twenty-eight had to make their marks; in other words, one-third could not write their names; and her voice has not been heard in this hall or the other claiming a portion of the public domain for the education of her ignorant children—a State which is the parent of Tennessee; a State in which Sir Walter Raleigh's emigrants first settled; a State which has the honor of standing proudly the first to declare, by a political State act (to say nothing about her Mecklenburg convention), her determination to be separated from the mother country; for, on the 12th of April, 1776, the congress of North Carolina “empowered their delegates to declare independence.”

If we were to form a general opinion of the condition of education in other States from like circumstances, we would conclude that Kentucky is but slightly in advance of North Carolina.

You will find recorded in your journal of proceedings a case almost as remarkable in the first session of the succeeding Congress, that in the evidence given in the contested election of Moore and Letcher; of one hundred and twelve names of witnesses which I counted, sixteen were marksmen, or about one-fifth who could not write their names.

* * * * *

The effect of education upon a nation is not alone in the mental and moral exaltation of its people, but the consequence is in equal ratio upon its physical energies and the increasing development of its resources. To sustain the latter position I will read an extract from the very able and most valuable work of Mr. E. C. Wines, on the subject of “Popular Education.” He says that “the intellect of this people is not cultivated to one-fourth—scarcely, perhaps, to one-eighth—the extent that it would be by the adoption of a wise system of universal education. And who can calculate the results? What imagination can set limits to the pecuniary advantages that would accrue to the country if useful inventions and discoveries were multiplied fourfold!” * * * In illustration of this point, President Young has made a comparison, founded upon the statistics of Baron Dupin, between the commercial and manufacturing condition of England and France. From this calculation it appears that the muscular force employed in commerce and manufactures in these two countries is about equal, being in each equivalent, in round numbers, to the power of six millions of men. Thus, if the productive enterprise of the two countries depended solely upon the animate power employed, France ought to be as great a commercial and manufacturing country as England. But the English, by means of machinery, have increased their force to a power equal to that of twenty-five millions of men, while the French have only raised theirs to that of eleven millions. England, then, owing to her superiority in discovering and inventing, has more than quadrupled her power of men and horses. France, on the other hand, has not quite doubled hers. Is it,” the learned professor then pertinently inquires, “is it now any wonder that these islanders, with a narrower territory, smaller population, and less genial climate, should immensely outstrip their less intelligent and ingenious neighbors? Can we conceive a stronger proof of the actual pecuniary gain that accrues to a nation from cultivating the intellect of her sons than is furnished from such a fact?” How much does England gain by her superiority over France from this fact? The actual commercial and manufacturing power of the latter country is only two-fifths of that of the former. The present annual value of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain, according to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, is estimated to be about thirty-five millions of pounds sterling. Three-fifths of that sum, or more than twenty millions of pounds, is England's clear gain over her less skilful rival; an amount more than three times as great as the whole present annual revenue of the United States; and for this vast and ever increasing tide of prosperity England is clearly indebted to popular education, which is the parent of intelligence and the ultimate cause of all those improvements in the cotton manufacture by which these amazing results have been secured.

At one time England imported her cotton fabrics from India. By the invention of machinery, she now imports the raw material, sends it back seven thousand miles, manufactured, for sale in a country where the hand loom is still used. By Middleton's genius London is saved annually about eight millions of dollars in the facilities of furnishing water for that city. What amount of labor has been saved by Whittemore's card making machine? Whitney's invention of the cotton gin has more than doubled the value of every acre of cotton land in the South. And Fulton created a miracle by his steam invention, which has propelled the present generation more than two centuries ahead of their otherwise destination. It is beyond the estimate of human calculation to compute the resources and power of this nation if education were universally diffused, so as to bring its influence to bear upon their full development. But the limited statements which I have given show how deplorable is the condition of education in most of the States; how many who cannot even read or write. The Emperor of Austria has issued an edict preventing those from marrying who cannot even read or write. The purpose is good, yet in this country it would be regarded as cruel. By the constitution of Peru no one will be allowed the privileges of citizenship after 1340 who cannot read and write. With all our boasted intelligence, such a law would create in this nation a civil revolution.

What lover of his country would not hope that the day was but shortly distant when this nation would present a spectacle worthy of its destination, when every citizen should enjoy the benefit of a generous education? And I would speed, with Wordsworth—

The coming of that glorious time
When, prizing knowledge as her noblest wealth
And best protection, this imperial realm,
While she exacts allegiance, shall admit
An obligation, on her part, to teach
Them who are born to serve her and obey;
Binding herself by statute to secure
For all the children whom her soil maintains
The rudiments of letters, and to inform
The mind with moral and religious truth.

While these struggles were going on in Congress interesting changes in respect to education were taking place in various States. It can hardly be doubted that, had the considerations presented by the friends of education in Congress from 1825 to 1860 been brought forward and their maturity of plans reached before 1810, there would have been adopted some general, comprehensive, and equitable plan for the aid of education in the old States as well as in the new; but slavery, gradually dying out from the Northern and Eastern States and not being permitted to enter the Northwest Territory, had gradually come to be more profitable in the Southern and cotton raising States, and to assert itself for its own protection in national legislation. Universal education would imperil it, therefore Congress must be shy of aiding it. In the States in which slavery had most strongly intrenched itself the great efforts made by noble spirits for the promotion of education were only partially successful. University education was favored because it educated the master; but efforts for elementary education resulted chiefly in "pauper" schools, as they were officially characterized by Governor Hammond, of South Carolina. In those States in which slavery was passing away there were marked efforts to promote a revival of education; associations were

formed, discussions held, tracts issued, legislatures memorialized, and yet, perhaps, none of these that succeeded in bringing about favorable legislation were more able or significant than those that were, during this period, prepared and presented in Kentucky and Maryland, where the influence of slavery rendered them of no avail. In New England, when Horace Mann, Dr. Barnard, and their compeers came on the stage of action, these efforts began to secure recognition in legislation. Reports on education in Europe, especially of German schools, made by Bache, Mann, Stowe, and Barnard, were printed and circulated at State expense. The results we see to-day; they need not be described.

It is an interesting fact and worthy of special note that in all the efforts for national aid to education southern men were especially prominent in the Congress of the Confederation, in the convention which adopted the Constitution, and in the series of efforts which followed in Congress, to which I have alluded.

SPECIAL NEEDS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

Why should these considerations be renewed to-day? It is undoubtedly true that as each new State is carved out of the remaining public domain the appropriate sections will be set apart for the State university, for the common school, and the appropriate grant made for the college of agriculture and the mechanic arts. But if this be done the necessity which brought on the continued agitation to which I referred for equalization and general distribution still remains.

Slavery, whose interests hindered and defeated, as we believe, the adoption of a systematic plan, has passed away.

In the States where it has been more recently abolished, peculiar circumstances render national aid necessary and desirable.

Dr. Sears, in his last able report to the trustees of the Peabody fund, says:

I have already alluded to the debts which, with almost crushing weight, hang over most of the Southern States. Among other questions of fearful import which are engaging the attention of public men in these States, that of supporting or not supporting the schools in their existing financial condition is not the least perplexing. It is not for me to express an opinion how far it would be expedient or possible for Congress to come to the aid of the impoverished States, by making temporary or permanent provision for national education. The subject is not a new one to Congress. But if ever there was a moment when its consideration seemed called for by the exigencies of the cause of education in the Southern States it is this moment. Nor can it ever be regarded as a mere local or sectional question. No part of the country can be uninterested in its decision. The want of good schools in any quarter of the Union is an injury to the whole Union, as the success of republican institutions rests upon the intelligence and capacity for self-government of the whole people and of all the States. The inability of some of the States to maintain their schools for more than four months in the year may have influences far beyond the region in which the inability exists. Our own funds are obviously insufficient for the exigencies which such a state of things creates; and I can only make this passing allusion to it as an evidence that it has not been unobserved in the discharge of the duties which have devolved upon me.

I do not know of a single prominent school official in one of these States who does not desire this aid. One gentleman, at the head of a State system, who was State superintendent of public instruction before the war, referring to the difficulties of raising funds in his own State, observes that they can contribute hardly one-fourth of the amount necessary for such a system :

May I not, therefore, my dear sir, request your recommendation of such measures as will benefit this State in connection with her sister Commonwealths, and thus strengthen her attachment to the Government of the Union, of which she *now* feels and appreciates the kindly beneficence?

To whom can we appeal for a correct judgment on this subject if not to those specially charged with the responsibility of administering education in these States? In all my intercourse with these gentlemen and direct communication on this subject, all save two have been emphatic in their approval and urgency. No one who studies education in any of the States can fail to see the need of important improvements. The fact mentioned by the President in his late message, that one in seven of the voters of the country is practically illiterate, is a comprehensive and conclusive statement of the necessity; while in a number of the States a majority of the voters are unable to read their ballots.

POSITION OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

But we cannot contemplate education in a national light without looking to that domain which is beyond State organizations, and which in respect to education has been conspicuously neglected since the passage of the great ordinance of 1787. The District of Columbia should have fair and just consideration. The fact that the seat of government is here gives the nation a peculiar interest in the intelligence and virtue of the population. Where else should these characteristics be more conspicuous? The security of Government property, the honesty and efficiency of Government employés, and the fair fame of the nation are specially involved. Besides, there is special injustice in taxing the permanent population to provide the necessary means for the education of the children of those here as visitors or residing here temporarily in Government service. This the President has appropriately recognized in his recent message. But our Territories are in some respects peculiarly situated, and specially deserving of aid according to their population. For nearly twenty years New Mexico was without any legal provision for common schools, and the 25,000 to 30,000 Alaskans today have no provision in law by which they can organize themselves to build a road, erect a school-house, or employ a teacher. Yet this is the best Government on which the sun ever shines. But I have said enough to justify the anxiety of the educators of the country for some just and comprehensive action by the General Government in aid of education. True, by the Bureau of Education it gathers, records, and publishes the educational experience of the several portions of the coun-

try for the benefit of the whole. It seeks to bring within the reach of our school officers and teachers a knowledge of the progress in educational systems, methods, and appliances throughout the world. Thus it aids in giving wise direction to local struggles in behalf of education, but the necessity for supplemental pecuniary aid remains the same.

How shall this be bestowed? The great efficiency in the administration of the Peabody benefactions to education in the South arises largely from the conditions on which aid to a school or system of schools is granted. If a community raises \$300 for the education of all its children on the improved plan the agent adds \$100. If a community raises \$3,000 for this purpose he adds, perhaps, \$1,000; and thus in an annual distribution of \$100,000 there is secured the local collection and expenditure of \$700,000 or more.

The several States are accustomed to disburse from their treasuries their State funds in aid of education.¹

CONCLUSION.

It cannot be doubted that some appropriate conditions in the method of the disbursement will greatly add to the efficiency of any national aid. We are standing at the beginning of the second century of the Republic. Is it not reasonable that we should learn wisdom by experience? And what mistake of the past century that it was in the power of human skill to avoid, if traced to the people, must not be charged to their lack, at some point, of intelligence or virtue? The only thing that the fathers could have done to add lustre to the century that has closed which they failed to do, was to make more ample and complete provision for education. Let that mistake be corrected to-day. We do not believe it can be done by any violent measure, by any interference with local administration. We believe that the national obligation will be met, if the General Government (1) gathers records and communicates the educational efforts and lessons of the country, and (2) constitutionally be-

¹ State apportionments are made on the following conditions: On the basis of school population—In Alabama, if school be taught 3 months; Arkansas; Connecticut, if school be taught from 24 to 30 weeks; Florida, if school be taught 3 months; Georgia; Illinois, if proper returns are made; Indiana, subject to fine of \$25 for failure to make return; Iowa; Kansas, if school be taught 3 months; Louisiana; Maine; Maryland, if school be taught 7½ months; Michigan, if school be taught from 5 to 9 months; Minnesota; Mississippi, if school be taught 4 months; Missouri, if school population be returned and school be taught 3 months; Nevada, if school be taught 3 months; New Jersey, at least \$350 to each district having more than 45 children; North Carolina; Ohio, if school population be reported; Oregon, if reports be made and school kept open 3 months; Tennessee; Texas; Vermont, if school be taught 20 weeks; Virginia, if proper local provision has been made; West Virginia, if school be taught 4 months; and Wisconsin, if school be taught 5 months and the teacher paid. On the number of school teachers—In California, if school be taught 6 months. According to school population and attendance—In Colorado, if school be taught 120 days. Partly to counties and partly according to white population—In Delaware, if proper returns are made. By race and then according to school population—In Kentucky, if drawn by districts by January 1. One-half to school district and one-half according to local tax—In Massachusetts, if school be taught 36 weeks and if town tax of \$3 per child be raised. To counties according to school population—In Nebraska, if school be taught 3 months. To school districts reporting and to counties according to population—In New York, if school be taught 28 weeks. In proportion to taxable persons in each district—In Pennsylvania, if reports be made and counties raise equal tax. According to school attendance—In New Hampshire and South Carolina. According to school population and number of school districts—In Rhode Island.

stows, on appropriate conditions, supplemental aid to education in the several States and Territories. I shall close these remarks by inviting your attention to the following eloquent words of Thomas Smith Grimke, of South Carolina :

Nor, gentlemen, while we remember our fellowship and our common parentage, let us forget our common inheritance, our country. We cannot honor our country with too deep a reverence ; we cannot love her with an affection too pure and fervent ; we cannot serve her with an energy of purpose or a faithfulness of zeal too steadfast and ardent. And what is our country ? It is not the East, with her hills and her valleys, with her countless sails, and the rocky ramparts of her shores. It is not the North, with her thousand villages and her giant canal, with her frontiers of the lake and the ocean. It is not the West, with her forest sea and her inland isles, with her luxuriant expanses, clothed in the verdant corn, with her beautiful Ohio and her majestic Missouri. Nor is it yet the South, opulent in the mimic snow of the cotton, in the rich plantations of the rustling cane, and in the golden robes of the rice-field. What are these but the sister families of one greater, better, holier family, our country ? I come not here to speak the dialect or to give the counsels of the patriot statesman ; but I come, a patriot scholar, to vindicate the rights and to plead for the interests of American literature. And be assured, gentlemen, that we cannot, as patriot scholars, think too highly of that country or sacrifice too much for her. And let us never forget, let us rather remember with a religious awe, that the union of these States is indispensable to our literature, as it is to our national independence and civil liberties, to our prosperity, happiness, and improvement. If, indeed, we desire to behold a literature like that which has sculptured with such energy of expression, which has painted so faithfully and vividly the crimes, the vices, the follies of ancient and modern Europe ; if we desire that our land should furnish for the orator and the novelist, for the painter and the poet, age after age, the wild and romantic scenery of war, the glittering march of armies and the revelry of the camp, the shrieks and blasphemies and all the horrors of the battle-field, the desolation of the harvest and the burning cottage, the storm, the sack, and the ruin of cities ; if we desire to unchain the furious passions of jealousy and selfishness, of hatred, revenge, and ambition, those lions that now sleep harmless in their den ; if we desire that the lake, the river, the ocean, should blush with the blood of brothers ; that the winds should waft from the land to the sea, from the sea to the land, the roar and the smoke of battle ; that the very mountain-tops should become altars for the sacrifice of brothers ; if we desire that these, and such as these — the elements, to an incredible extent, of the literature of the Old World — should be the elements of our literature, then, but then only, let us hurl from its pedestal the majestic statue of our Union and scatter its fragments over all our land. But if we covet for our country the noblest, purest, loveliest literature the world has ever seen, such a literature as shall honor God and bless mankind — a literature whose smiles might play upon an angel's face, whose tears " would not stain an angel's cheek " — then let us cling to the Union of these States with a patriot's love, with a scholar's enthusiasm, with a Christian's hope. In her heavenly character, as a holocaust self-sacrificed to God ; at the height of her glory, as the ornament of a free, educated, peaceful, Christian people, American literature will find that the intellectual spirit is her very tree of life, and that Union her garden of paradise.

President WICKERSHAM remarked that the subject of establishing a national education fund from the proceeds of land sales under the General Land Office is before both houses of Congress, bills for that purpose having been introduced. Superintendents could do much to interest Senators and Representatives by personal interviews. The cry for help from some such source, he said, is very urgent. He asked

that Hon. G. J. Orr, superintendent of Georgia schools, make the convention acquainted with the needs of education in his State.

Mr. Orr's brief remarks, to the same effect as those already given in the proceedings at the meeting in 1879, are here omitted. His remarks at that meeting are given in extenso (pp. 46-58).

Mr. PHILBRICK expressed the warm sympathy felt by the educators and the people of Massachusetts for the difficulties encountered by Dr. Orr and his fellow workers, and said that he was heartily in favor of establishing an educational fund as provided in the bills now before Congress. He thought the income of such a fund should be distributed for ten years on the ratio of the illiteracy; this plan he much preferred to that of distributing the money according to the territorial area. The object of giving the money should be to give help where help is most needed, and not to put a premium on an accident. He recognized the responsibility of the National Government, and would have Congress begin by supporting education in the District of Columbia. The speaker was glad to bear his grateful testimony to the uniform and cordial support that educators in Massachusetts had always received from the honorable gentleman (Mr. Loring) during his service as a member of the State legislature.

Mr. ORR wished to add that, in his opinion, the Southern States would not wish to receive aid from the national funds unless they were held accountable for the manner of spending the same, as provided in the bills pending before Congress.

Mr. HENDERSON said that this measure (Mr. Hoar's bill) solves two problems for Kentucky. When he became State superintendent, Kentucky was without any system of education for the colored people. He devised the best he could; he tried to do what he thought was right, but his plan was more liberal than any the legislature would adopt. The law gives the colored people every dollar of their taxes for education, and in towns their part of the municipal tax also. The taxes paid by colored people have doubled in three years. The provision was made that, if the Congress of the United States should give the States the proceeds of the sale of the public land, the appropriation of that money should go to the colored people until the per capita of colored children equalled that of the white children. The second point is that the bill solves the normal school problem for Kentucky. The speaker felt a great deal of interest in this bill, and expected to stay long enough to use such influence as he had to see it through. In office for six years by a vote of 235,000 citizens of Kentucky, the speaker claimed to know something of the wants of the State.

Mr. BOWMAN said that there seemed to be but one sentiment about those bills, and he wanted to thank his friend from Massachusetts.

On motion, the Department adjourned, to meet at 10 o'clock the following morning.

THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *December 12, 1877.*

The Department reassembled at 10 o'clock. The President called attention to letters from A. P. Stone, superintendent of public schools, Springfield, Mass.; James C. Weaver, county superintendent of Accomack County, Va.; R. D. Shannon, State superintendent of public schools, Missouri; and S. M. Etter, superintendent of public instruction, Illinois.

EDUCATION AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

The committee on the Paris Exposition made the following report:

The committee appointed to consider the question of the representation of the educational interests of the country at the Paris Exposition respectfully report the following propositions:

1. That we consider it of the utmost importance that the educational interests of the country should be represented at the Paris Exposition.

2. That the President be earnestly requested to appoint as one of the paid commissioners provided for in the act of Congress a competent scientific expert in matters of education to organize and take charge of the educational exhibit of the United States, and to report upon Group II of the Exposition, relating to education, instruction, and products of the liberal arts.

3. That the President be also requested to appoint a fair proportion of the honorary commissioners with reference to their special qualifications either to assist in organizing such an exhibition as is contemplated by Group II or in reporting upon the question of education as therein exemplified.

4. That an effort be made to have set apart a fair share of the appropriation made by Congress for the organization and installation of the educational exhibit.

5. That the commissioners assigned to take charge of the educational exhibit be urged to establish as soon as practicable a headquarters, at the port from which the goods are to be shipped, for the purpose of receiving articles and arranging the exhibit.

6. That, if the measures above indicated be substantially adopted, we pledge ourselves to unite in an effort to have the educational interests of the whole country adequately represented in all their departments, means, methods, and results; but, if these interests should be ignored in the appointment of commissioners or in the distribution of the money appropriated, we deem it impossible to make an exhibition that will be creditable to the country.

7. That a copy of this report, signed by the officers of the department, be placed in the hands of the President of the United States and such other authorities as may be proper to advise concerning our views on this subject.

8. That the committee be continued, for the purpose of carrying what is herein proposed into practical effect.

The report was adopted.

AMERICAN EDUCATION.

President Wickersham then introduced Hon. GEORGE B. LORING, M. C., of Massachusetts, who delivered the following address:

Gentlemen, I trust it will not seem inappropriate to discuss briefly in a business meeting of the representatives of the educational organizations of our country the aim

and object of American education. Not an expert, but merely an interested observer, with some past experience both as teacher and learner, I present my views with diffidence and distrust. The efforts now made to cultivate the popular mind by all the appliances of college and academy and high school and schools of industrial art command my most profound respect, and those who are engaged in their development and control command my warmest sympathy. In what I say, therefore, I would in no way criticise their service. But I desire to offer some suggestions on the general culture of the youthful mind, which may perhaps serve to broaden and strengthen the work now so well performed. An intense devotion to an organized system, and a deep desire to perfect it, may at times contract our sphere of vision and confine our efforts. If this has occurred in our educational work in any way, I think it will do no harm at least to remember that *a broad general culture of the mind is necessary to prepare it for education for a specific purpose*, and that by such general culture can the object of American education be best attained.

In considering American education generally, and to some extent abstractly, I shall discuss—

1. The kind of intellectual culture the colonists brought with them, and their object in founding institutions of learning;
2. The American characteristics which have been developed and strengthened by education of every variety; and
3. The practical matters which should be applied to the work of American education: the relations which should be established between teacher and pupil, especially in a country like ours; the extent to which graded schools can be wisely and profitably carried on; the school-house best adapted to the educational work in which we are engaged; and the influence which the pupils may and should exercise upon each other.

In doing this our attention is first attracted by what is usually known as the academic system, which grew up with the American colonies and has received the special care of the American Republic; and by this I do not mean a system of classical culture alone, but a system of mixed and general education. In the hands of the founders of the state here this system became identified with the establishment of education upon a popular basis, emancipated from all control as a privilege and extended and confirmed to all as a right. It is a remarkable and interesting fact that the emancipation of science from ecclesiastical tyranny and intellectual arrogance by Bacon and the establishment of a state upon recognized popular principles occurred at about the same time. The first half of the seventeenth century in England was distracted by intellectual and moral and religious protests. Bacon in science, Milton in literature, Cromwell and Hampden and Pym in politics, all represented that advancing and protesting force which has given England her power and sent a democratic vitality into the colonies, which were largely peopled and almost universally inspired by independent Englishmen. It was an era of right and not of privilege. The hard lines of scholasticism were breaking up. Great scholars were scholars for the people and not for the schools. The Protestants and non-conformists and separatists of England could not accept as a guide to their thought a system of philosophy which was made indisputable by the doctrines of a church whose ecclesiastical authority they denied, whose spiritual guidance they rejected. The learned men of England who watched and many of whom took part in the colonizing of America had long applied their minds to the investigation of problems connected with the best systems of popular government. When William Brewster was graduated at Cambridge in 1585 he carried his excellent scholarship at once into the work of guiding and counselling that little band of pilgrims who were then waiting at Scrooby for an opportunity to found an empire on freedom of conscience in matters of religion, a popular government on the consent of the governed. Occupying a high position among the progressive and independent thinkers of his time, he became familiar with the doctrines which disestablished the church in the most religious and fervid spot on earth in that day, and

which shook the throne of England. What a defiant crowd of scholars, taught in the same school, inspired by the same thought and speculation, bent on the same purpose, flocked to these shores, bringing the independent spirit of the Protestant with them, under the care of the Huguenots of Carolina, the Covenanters of New Jersey, the Puritans of New England, and the Quakers of Pennsylvania! When Roger Williams came to this New World and found no rest for the sole of his foot until he had established for himself an opportunity to exercise the most "unqualified freedom of conscience under human government," he brought with him the culture which controlled the most powerful of England in his day. When Sir Harry Vane brought to the gubernatorial chair of the Massachusetts Bay colony a spirit of liberality and freedom which called around him the liberty loving men of that day, and clothed him with a power which Winthrop himself in support of magisterial authority could barely overthrow, he came fresh from Oxford and the best schools of Holland and Germany, imbued with that spirit of learning which neither church nor state could subdue, and which won for him the divine tribute of Milton's verse and an immortality in that great chapter of the world's history—that chapter in which is recorded the founding of civil and religious freedom in America. And so came Endicott and Hooker and Cotton and Raleigh, familiar with the faces of those who are now to us the classic English writers, born of a people who were untamed and untamable in their self-assertion, who were nurtured on the sublimest English poetry, upon whose heaven-kissing summits the poets of all succeeding generations have been gazing with hopeless wonder and admiration, and on the most defiant English philosophy, which opened the path trod by all modern investigation; a people who declared for freedom and then fearlessly struck for it; who asserted a prerogative and then demanded a right: who in the Old World now rally round a throne as the insignia of their national power, and in the New World stand by a Constitution as the expression and embodiment of their social and civil principles. Born as these men were of controversy, dialectics, and debate, they strove with each other on the "weightier matters of the law," and disputed with ecclesiastical fervor upon the covenant and the doctrines, until the integrity and safety of the state itself seemed involved in the controversy. The pious zeal of John Endicott in executing the laws against those who differed from the religion of the colony; the political ardor of John Winthrop in organizing a defeat for Sir Harry Vane as governor of the colony on account of his defense of Mrs. Hutchinson against the bigotry of the colonial clergy, mark the spirit and character of the controversies which sprang up in those early days of civil and religious freedom. But on one point they united: the establishment of a popular system of education in which all might have a share; a system intended to cultivate all men into a fitness for the enjoyment of the privileges of a free state and for the exercise of its rights, they never forgot and never neglected. They might exhaust themselves over "fixed fate, free will, foreknowledge absolute;" they might rend the state itself in a contest over the covenant and the half way covenant, the civil rights of communicants and non-communicants, but for the cause of common education they joined hands and poured forth liberally from their resources in support of the school-house and the college. It was education which had filled their minds with the doctrines of freedom, and they believed that through education all men could be brought to a true understanding of the church of Christ and to an intelligent exercise of their rights as citizens of a free state. For the disputations of the schools they substituted the debates of the town meeting; for the private school they substituted the district school-house, open to all; for a corporation of learning they substituted a republic of letters. They left behind them a system of state and society in which education would naturally confine itself to narrow channels, and they entered upon the organization of a state whose power would arise and increase from a general diffusion of knowledge through all ranks and orders of men. On the soil which they reclaimed and occupied has grown up a system of education which offers its blessings to all, which indeed would compel all to partake of its living waters; a system supported and de-

veloped by the liberality and care of the state, and so universally organized that it would be easier to escape from the influences of the sun than from the omnipresence of the American school-house. They left behind them in the old country the general belief that the masses of the people require no education and that to cultivate their minds is simply to render them restless and discontented; and they left behind them also the general custom of endowment schools and universities, in the former of which the teacher and the endowment alone remained, and in the latter of which a privileged class enjoyed the entire benefit of the modes of instruction. To this western hemisphere they gave a republic of civil freedom; to the world they gave an impulse of popular education that in our own day has made the land they left the abode not only of the great universities but of a widespread and universal organization in which three millions of children are annually taught and to support which more than eight millions of dollars are annually appropriated. Had the American colonists done nothing more than this—had they failed to establish an independent nationality, and simply organized their popular school system—they would have accomplished a work for which their memories would ever be held in grateful remembrance; a work whose influence is now felt wherever the light of civilization shines; a work in the performance of which the most powerful and enlightened nations of our day are engaged in a generous and honorable rivalry.

THE NATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS DEVELOPED BY EDUCATION.

The spirit which animated the early founders of the American system of popular education also established to a very considerable extent the object which that system has always had in view, the result to which it naturally tends. In cultivating the minds of a people, the most striking effect produced is the intensifying and strengthening of their national characteristics. It is culture which makes a nation most deeply national, gives new warmth to its vitality, new vigor to its powers, fresh impetuosity to its national impulses, a keener edge to its intellectual faculties, loftier purpose, a higher destiny. It is not surprising, then, that the institutions of learning scattered freely throughout our land should have preserved and magnified those characteristics which not only gave to us existence as a people, but gave peculiar significance and power to our introduction among the nations of the earth. The love of freedom, the hatred of oppression, the devotion to an independent form of faith, the intense individualism which marked the early career of the American colonists, have all been nourished and developed into broader and stronger life by our national experience and education of more than two centuries. The Puritanism of to-day, though perhaps somewhat modified, is a warmer and more defiant Puritanism than that brought hither by Endicott and Winthrop. The liberalism of John Robinson and his pilgrim band, broad as it was at Plymouth, is broader and freer to-day in all Massachusetts—perhaps in all North America. The strong powers of our childhood have been cultivated into the stronger powers of our manhood; and I think it is not too much to say that while we have retained and increased the forces, we have triumphed over and eradicated many of the weaknesses of our high toned and defiant, and at the same time bigoted, and perhaps suspicious and overwatchful, ancestors.

The foremost object and effect of two centuries and a half of popular education on this continent has been to deepen and develop our nationality. It has produced an abundant crop of American citizens—not subjects, not persons destined to specific duties, high and low, but citizens, clothed with obligations and responsibilities, and supplied with abundant opportunities for the exercise of all their faculties. When Samuel Adams took his master's degree at Harvard in 1743, he selected as a subject for his thesis the following question, which his career has made immortal: "*An suprema magistratui resistere liceret, si aliter servari respublica nequit?*" ("Whether it be lawful to resist the supreme magistrate, if the commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved.") While Thomas Jefferson was yet an infant in his cradle, on the beautiful banks of the Rivanna, this Boston boy, educated in the Boston schools and filled

with the effects of the Puritan culture of Massachusetts, had reached even at the very commencement of his intellectual endeavors a fundamental civil problem upon the solution of which all the philosophical thought of Jefferson exhausted itself in support of the American Revolution and to establish the affirmative of which Washington dedicated all his imposing powers. In the mind of this young graduate of Harvard the condensed thought of more than a century of colonial life found an abiding place, and the topic which occupied his meditations was the subject which lay nearest to the hearts of his people. He was not alone in his investigations: the highest and best laws of state and society occupied the active minds of that day wherever they might be found, whether in the assemblies of the elders, or in the austere labors of the Puritan pulpit, or in the town meetings, or in the institutions of learning, the common schools, the academies, the colleges. Every village had its Samuel Adams. Every town record had its Declaration of Independence. From many a meeting house went forth the announcement of faith in human equality as the foundation of the state long before the national utterance at Independence Hall. It was American citizenship which constituted the first great object of American education. In all the practical affairs of life the fathers exercised their best powers, and became good merchants, good mechanics, good farmers, good legal advisers, strong and influential parish ministers; and for this service they stored their minds with the best knowledge to be derived from experience and books. But they knew well that the great civil problem committed to their hands required intelligent thought and needed the support of cultivated minds as well as defiant hearts and strong arms; and while they had great confidence in the correctness of the popular impulse of their day, they had still greater confidence in the enlightened consciences and educated instincts of a people who believed in mental culture and made provision to obtain it. And to-day, as in the former days, surrounded as we are by the most perplexing questions of state and society, called upon to strike as well as to bear, laden with the trials of war and the highest responsibilities of peace, compelled to be ruthless now and now generous and placable and forgiving, we must recognize the value of that intelligence and thoughtfulness which are the natural fruits of popular education.

Not long ago one of the most remarkable students of the theological and political questions which involve the welfare and the destiny of state and society in America, prefaced one of his eloquent lectures before an admiring audience in the city of Boston with the following incisive quotation from De Tocqueville:

Individualism¹ is of democratic origin, and it threatens to spread in the same ratio as the equality of condition. Among aristocratic nations, as families remain for centuries in the same condition, often on the same spot, all generations become, as it were, contemporaneous. A man almost always knows his forefathers and respects them; he thinks he already sees his remote descendants, and he loves them. He willingly imposes duties on himself toward the former and the latter; and he will frequently sacrifice his personal gratifications to those who went before and to those who will come after him. Aristocratic institutions have, moreover, the effect of closely binding every man to several of his fellow citizens. As the classes of an aristocratic people are strongly marked and permanent, each of them is regarded by its own members as a sort of lesser country, more tangible and more cherished than the country at large. As, in aristocratic communities, all the citizens occupy fixed positions, one above the other, the result is that each of them always sees a man above himself whose patronage is necessary to him and below himself another man whose coöperation he may claim. Men living in aristocratic ages are therefore almost always closely attached to something placed out of their own sphere, and they are often disposed to forget themselves. It is true that, in these ages, the notion of human fellowship is faint, and that men seldom think of sacrificing themselves for mankind; but they often sacrifice themselves for other men. In democratic times, on the con-

¹ De Tocqueville distinguishes between selfishness and individualism: selfishness he defines as the exaggerated love of self which leads a man to connect everything with himself and to prefer himself to everything else; individualism, as a mature feeling which disposes a man to sever himself from the mass of his fellows and draw apart with his family and friends, forming a little circle of his own and leaving society at large to itself. Selfishness originates in blind instinct; individualism proceeds from erroneous judgment more than from depraved feelings.

trary, when the duties of each individual to the race are much more clear, devoted service to any one man becomes more rare; the bond of human affection is extended, but it is relaxed.

Among democratic nations new families are constantly springing up, others are constantly falling away, and all that remain change their condition; the woof of time is every instant broken, and the track of generations effaced. Those who went before are soon forgotten; of those who will come after, no one has any idea. The interest of a man is confined to those in close propinquity to himself. As each class approximates to other classes and intermingles with them its members become indifferent and as strangers to one another. Aristocracy had made a chain of all the members of the community from the peasant to the king. Democracy breaks that chain and severs every link of it.

As social conditions become more equal, the number of persons increases who, although they are neither rich nor powerful enough to exercise any great influence over their fellows, have nevertheless acquired or retained sufficient education and fortune to satisfy their own wants. They owe nothing to any man. They expect nothing from any man. They acquire the habit of always considering themselves as standing alone; and they are apt to imagine that their whole destiny is in their own hands.

Thus, not only does democracy make every man forget his ancestors, but it hides his descendants and separates his contemporaries from him; it throws him back forever upon himself alone, and threatens in the end to confine him entirely within the solitude of his own heart.¹

It is this democratic characteristic which lies at the very foundation of American civilization and thought, and which when based on intelligence is admirable and when based on ignorance is repulsive and dangerous. It is this which makes an American truly American, and forbids that he should be ingrafted upon any other nationality. It is this which tempts all men to our shores, expanding their powers as they come under the influence of free institutions and converting them into Americans long before they have laid aside the customs of their native land. The emigrant who seeks only a home and a subsistence here, as he ponders upon the social privileges and civil rights which come within his grasp, feels the uprising of that sense of personal dignity and importance which forbids, at any rate, that he should return to the condition which he left behind him in the Old World, and which, perchance, may thoroughly fit him for the duties and opportunities of the new. A student passes out from one of the great universities of Europe, accomplished, educated, filled with knowledge which fits him for high service in life, and finds himself attracted to America as a sphere in which he can exercise his powers. On him the expanding influence of free institutions is not wasted, and he rises at once into the regions of active American thought, accepts the best doctrines of human freedom, takes his place slowly in the ranks, is found among the leaders, fights his own fight, is individual and alone, and becomes by natural growth the most striking specimen of American individualism in all his speculations and actions. And so it comes about that you can Americanize every nationality on earth, but you can denationalize an American never. Now, not to our ignorance, not to our depravity, not to our low moral elements, not to our defects and faults do we owe this power, but to whatever there is in us as a people which is morally attractive and intellectually imposing, to the influence upon us of our churches and institutions of learning. It is not the chance for political preferment or the contest for social and civil supremacy which impresses the minds of even the ignorant as they make their homes here. It is the moral and intellectual endeavor going on here, and the opportunity afforded for the free cultivation and exercise of the best faculties, which constitute that indescribable charm felt even when it is not understood. Nor is this individualism to be perfected by placing the protection and defence of man's intellectual rights in the hands of a few set apart by education or good fortune for the work of marshalling the mental forces of society. But when the masses of men are brought to a position superior to dogmatism and bigotry; when they listen to the voice of reason in things temporal and spiritual; when they have learned enough to know that intellectual arrogance and abject ignorance are equally dangerous to free institutions; when they learn the true value of man's noble qualities and the true hideousness of his mean ones, then will they have reached that point

¹ Democracy in America, Bowen's translation. vol. II, pp. 119-121.

of mental and moral development which will prevent either their enslavement or their betrayal, which will protect them against both the coercion of the dogmatist and the wiles of the sophist. I can conceive of a high toned and intelligent individualism which will elevate a pure democracy as far above the classifications of imperialism, either political or intellectual, as the home of a refined and prosperous citizen is superior to the abiding place of a serf. And that is to be reached by education alone; by a popular system of education which opens the school-house to all and provides that all who will may drink of the waters of life freely. Is not this manifestly an important object of American education? Not yet has this object been reached, nor will it be until American men cease to consider that they may be educated above the public questions of the day into a region of sublime contempt for the political duties and problems which present themselves on every hand to the patriotic and thoughtful, and cease to intrust the cares of the state to the unworthy. Not yet has this object been reached, nor will it be until American women learn to realize the responsibilities which rest upon them, and to meet with readiness and courage the duties which are continually falling into their hands, and which are but the prelude to higher and more active service.

That one object of American education is to give to labor the additional power of intelligence and skill it is hardly necessary for me to state. All men here believe in the well taught as against the ignorant in all the practical service of life. But you will allow me to allude to certain details in which practical education may not only cheer the hours of culture and luxury, but may also lighten the burdens of toil and ameliorate its cares. Men now believe in a busy life. They have even less faith in an idle one than Dr. Watts had when he wrote—

For Satan finds some mischief still
For idle hands to do.

I have no idea that the value of precept, and the power of doctrine, and the importance of abstract morals, "line upon line," and the efficacy of appeal, and the restraining influence of threatened punishment are all forgotten in these days of material enterprise and untiring ingenuity. But to all these we have added the encouraging and restraining and cheering influences of diverse industries. The law of reform and of prevention of error and crime is now based upon an active and cheerful employment of the head and the hands. We have found that there is less of crime and intemperance in the busy than there is in the idle communities, and that immorality decreases in proportion as every variety of occupation increases. The possession of a quick eye and skilful fingers is always a delight to the possessor; and as the average human mind is constituted, more cheer and comfort and encouragement are derived from the achievements of practical faculties than from communion with the great creations of the highest intellectual powers. The exhilaration which attends scientific investigation, or the application of mechanical forces, or designing, or constructing, or inventing, is great. We have a kindly attachment to the work of our own fingers; and when they are busy, and the product of their labor is constantly unfolded before us, we are in good condition to carry into practical operation good resolutions, and are filled with a cheerful courage to contend with an approaching foe. We turn, then, from the book of maxims to the pages of science and technology with confidence, and call in industrial and technical education as a powerful ally to the moral agents which are employed for the benefit of society. The day of crude labor, moreover, is over. In almost every avocation, toil is the triumph of man over the obstacles which surround him; and as he stands erect before them, bowed down no longer by their depressing weight, he is filled with a sense of exhilaration which gives him new and unfailing strength to meet the trials and temptations of life; and he is also filled with a consciousness that he is using the powers of art and science to enable him to meet all the requirements of business based on rapid production and an economical supply.

The day of ugliness is also well-nigh over. Men are not satisfied with clumsiness

and want of grace, nor with the absence of adornment and decoration. They all undertake to judge of shapes and colors; demand pleasing designs in their carpets—and carpets they will all have; are pleased with the Greek square in the paper which adorns their walls; will have a few lithographs, or photographs, or chromos, or engravings; are eager for illustrated literature; believe in spanning continents and seas by steam, and converse from one great city to another with the telephone; are impatient of delay, and have little love for clumsiness and little faith in ignorance. For the purposes, then, of moral reform, for the amelioration of labor, for the cultivation and gratification of the tastes, for the development of our industries, we demand schools of technology, and normal art schools, and schools of design; and let no man who opposes the founding of such schools suppose for a moment that he is obedient to the popular demand, or considerate of popular necessities, or devoted to public economy, or mindful of the public good. Carry the fruits of industrial education into the various walks of life and we shall give fresh vigor to our arts and industries, we shall give new employment to an active and intelligent generation, we shall hear no more of the ignorance of our artisans, and have no more chance for the gloomy pictures, either real or imaginary, of the social and domestic degradation so freely and, as I think, unjustly charged upon our rural homes.

PRACTICAL METHODS OF AMERICAN EDUCATION.

And now, gentlemen, in an assembly like this, I am sure I may with propriety suggest that to all this object of American education there should be laid a comprehensive and liberal foundation. The wise and sagacious husbandman, who would secure abundant crops, prepares his land with uniform skill and care in early spring, and supplies it liberally with all the elements of fertilizing material, conscious that while his crop may differ the land may by one process be brought to a condition suitable to the growth and maturity of every variety of his plants. It is a fertile and genial soil that he needs, whatever may be his crop. So, I think, may the teacher of childhood and early youth prepare the young mind by a broad and liberal and general culture for the specific duty which is laid out for it in after life, for the specialty to which each scholar is to dedicate his maturer powers. I say this with entire deference to those who belong to that complicated and organized machinery of education, composed of committees, teachers, institutes, and every variety of school, and a part of which is the graded system now so generally adopted. But I have been young, and now am old; I have been a scholar and a teacher, and am now an observer; and I would remind those engaged in the business of leading the youthful mind through the early paths of knowledge, that teachers may be converted into machines and children may be benumbed by a method as systematic and unvarying in its operations as a Jacquard loom. The mind, like the body, soon grows weary if subjected to one continuous and unchanging effort. The work becomes mechanical and uninteresting. And in a room dedicated to one grade of education for teachers and pupils alike, I am often reminded of that rude old interrogatory rhyme which has never yet been answered:

If all the earth were paper and all the seas were ink
And all the trees were bread and cheese, what should we do for drink?

The mind craves change. The young mind especially demands variety. It cannot live by bread alone. The teacher who has it in charge cannot satisfy it by one thought or one illustration, or by pointing out but one way for it to travel. Nor is any companion more distasteful and wearying to a child than a companion who has but one side to present, but one gift to bestow, but one story to tell, but one lesson to teach. I may be mistaken in this matter, but I cannot conceive how under circumstances like these any intimacy whatever can grow up between teacher and pupil; and without intimacy the labors of both are vain. It is as necessary to the perfect working of a school that a true and intimate relation should be established between the teacher and those who are to be taught as it is to establish a true relation between parent and child in a well ordered family, for the well being and benefit of both. Under the

guidance of the teacher, moreover, the best relations should be established between the scholars. And above all, and almost more than all, the most friendly and cheerful relations should be established between the scholars and their books, so that lessons shall in no sense be tasks, the printed page shall never be distasteful, and in after life the books themselves should be the most agreeable companions. All this may possibly be done in a graded school; if so, I am content.

But let us contemplate now another picture. The academic system—and I call it the academic system because it was the educational system of the old American academy when it was in its prime and was engaged in most useful and honorable educational work—presents itself to view. A teacher is placed in charge of a number of scholars, not so large that he cannot understand and appreciate the wants and weaknesses and characteristics of each. The business of the school goes on. It is a work of general culture in which all are engaged. The teacher makes himself the leading scholar of the school; solves the hard problems with the dull; encourages the application of the bright; presents the beauty of the study when there is any; smooths the hard, dull way whenever such a way is entered. The discipline is one of mutual understanding, not of authority and fear alone. The teacher attracts the scholars and secures their respect by his varied accomplishments. The text books themselves appear in his hands as the companions of the cultivated and competent guide. Not the studies and the teacher alone are strengthening and instructing the minds of the pupils, but the pupils themselves are imparting knowledge to each other, and when the page grows dim to the weary eye and the phrase has no meaning to the benumbed and tired faculties, the stimulus of a bright recitation irradiates the room, the relief of a new train of thought comes like a fresh breeze from the north to vitalize the heavy air, and perhaps by the voice of that young scholar and teacher combined the first spark is struck which points to the fire within. That all this can be done, I know, for I have seen it done. I had many a schoolmate in my youth who, in after life, could tell me the companion who first taught him the methods of solving the problems of mathematics, and the one who suggested the best inflection in reading, and the one whose voice first warmed him with a love of oratory, and the one who first impressed his mind with the idea that a recitation might be gracefully done, and that the modes of expression used in common conversation are worthy of the careful study of every one who values the intercourse of his fellow man and who knows that the light and cheer of the household are largely dependent upon the manner in which its inmates convey their thoughts to each other. And what public and private benefactors these are: a good reader, who has not plunged into the Dead Sea of modern inflection; a good writer, who expresses his thoughts in sound, well defined English, and knows where to place his adverbs and how to choose his prepositions and conjunctions; and a good talker, who knows how to lead his companions gracefully into subjects of interest and does not bury them alive under his own talk when he gets them there. You may call an educational method like this a Kindergarten prolonged into the time when the scholar is to enter upon his college career or upon the specialty to which he determines to devote himself. It may be so, but it is a garden in which may grow minds filled with a love of knowledge, supported by the vitalizing food of general culture, in sympathy with all intellectual endeavor, knowing enough of human nature to preserve their own self-respect and to secure the respect of others and, if the teacher has done his duty, imbued with a brave and keen moral sense, without which all education is but a mockery and a sham. You may say that a system like this requires smaller schools and more teachers. But do you think this would be an unmitigated evil? Are you sure that in the great crowds of children which are gathered in our vast school-houses, crowds which oftentimes no man can number, the individualism of the child is not destroyed, his view of education chilled and darkened, his sensibility blunted, his self-respect lost as he counts himself but one among so many machines, all modelled alike and all apparently intended for the same purpose? I must confess that I have no admiration for these great populous structures, either on the score of economy or as

institutions out of which can be brought the vigor of thought, the breadth of culture, or the moral sensibility which should lie at the foundation of a good American education, whether for the pulpit or the rostrum, the shop, the counting room, or the field. And I doubt not that, whatever division of the scholars may hereafter be made, whatever changes in outfit and apparatus may be devised, a more compact, economical, safe, and convenient school building will mark the educational generations who come after us. For the health, the minds, the morals, and the safety of the children, let us have smaller school-houses, smaller schools, more teachers.

In conclusion, allow me to say that I have great respect for the academy and its system. As I compare the provisions it has made in times past and now makes to lead the minds of the young men of our land through the varied and changing landscape of general culture up to the point of special instruction for a definite object in life; the more I compare the academic system of training youth for a vigorous and manly step into the work of the world with the methods which have grown out of an ambition to perfect an imposing plan and perhaps out of the difficulties incident to a dense population, reluctant it may be to learn, the more I admire it as an American institution, capable of developing that mental and moral strength without which citizenship is a failure and the skill of the most expert is wasted and lost. I believe the academies have constantly and directly before them the object of preliminary American education, the preparatory culture which will fill our colleges and technical schools with strong capacity for special work. May not their principles, therefore, be ingrafted upon the system of common education in which you are all engaged, and new life be infused into the work to which you are devoted? To you who know so well the successes which inspire and the difficulties which surround the education of a free people for all their duties, I submit this question with confident belief that it will be properly solved.

HON. JAMES A. GARFIELD, M. C., was introduced by President Wickersham, and, being called upon, spoke as follows:

Gentlemen, I am really not in a situation to say anything to this convention, for I do not know where you are in the course of your deliberations; but Dr. Loring has said some things that have awakened in me a very lively interest, and I will "rake after his cradling," as the harvesters would say. It is a matter of great gratification to me to meet gentlemen who are engaged in the work of education. I feel at home among teachers, and, I may say, I look back with more satisfaction upon my work as a teacher than upon any other work I have done. It gives me a pleasant home feeling to sit among you and revive old memories.

There is one thing to which I will venture to call your attention, and that is the great case, if I may speak as a lawyer, which is soon to be tried before the American people—the case of *Brains vs. Brick and Mortar*. That, in my judgment, is to be a notable trial, and until the cause is fully argued and rightly decided we shall have no end of trouble in our educational work. To insure its final and rightful settlement, the friends of our schools should unite to force the question to a hearing, and should go to the very bottom of the controversy. It has long been my opinion that we are all educated, whether children, men, or women, far more by personal influence than by books and the apparatus of schools. If I could be taken back into boyhood to-day, and had all the libraries and apparatus of a university, with ordinary routine professors, offered me on the one hand, and on the other a great, luminous, rich souled man, such as Dr. Hopkins was twenty years ago, in a tent in the woods alone, I should say give me Dr. Hopkins for my college course rather than any university with only routine professors. The privilege of sitting down before a great clear headed, large hearted man, and breathing the atmosphere of his life, and being drawn up to him and lifted up by him, and learning his methods of thinking and living, is in itself an enormous educating power. But America, I say, is running to brick and mortar. Colleges and universities are constantly receiving munificent gifts which the donors require to be

built into walls inscribed with their names; but the real college sits starving under the stately shadows. Our Smithsonian Institution over here was, for a long time, engaged in this struggle between brick and brains. One of the first things done by Congress was to saddle it with a huge brick building. Another impediment we fortunately got rid of, the great library of the institution, which devoured \$5,000 a year of the income; and we are now struggling to get off our hands the great museum, which costs still more. Museums and libraries are necessary and valuable; but the central purpose of Smithsonian, to encourage original discovery, was in great measure thwarted by the mere accumulation of materials. I hope the day is not distant when the income of that beneficent institution will be so liberated that every American who has the requisite genius and force can find there the help required for original investigations.

And so, in our schools, let us put less money in great school-houses and more in the salaries of teachers. Smaller schools and more teachers, less machinery and more personal influence, will bring forth fruits higher and better than any we have yet seen.

In this connection I will refer to the tendency in our primary schools to overcrowd the children by giving them too many studies and thus rendering them superficial in all. The professors at West Point tell us that for more than forty years their course of examinations of cadets for admission has been substantially the same, and that the questions now asked in the several branches are the same as those propounded in the same branches forty years ago. Now these professors say that the percentage of failures to pass that preliminary examination has been increasing, especially of late, with alarming rapidity, and is very much greater than it was forty years ago. I understand that Professor Church says this fact does not arise from worse appointments, nor from lack of general information. Indeed, the young men who go there now have much more general culture than their earlier predecessors. Many of them, who have studied Latin, algebra, and physics, and other higher branches, utterly break down in spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, and grammar. In short, they know a little of many branches, but are thorough in none.

There is a limit of effort in a child; and if his culture is spread over too large a surface it will be thin everywhere. The ambition of our schools to do too much results in doing nothing well. *Non multa sed multum* is the old and safe rule. I believe, therefore, that the two great points which the educators of this country should aim at if they would succeed are, first, smaller schools and more teachers—remembering always that a teacher who is at all fit for his work is one who has the power of inspiring, who can pour his spirit into the darkness of the pupil's mind, and fill it with "sweetness and light;" secondly, they should cut off a large number of new studies which have been forced into the earlier course, and concentrate their efforts upon the old primary branches until these are thoroughly mastered.

Now, gentlemen, you who are conducting the educational affairs of this country cannot afford to rest under this charge of failure at West Point. You must answer by disproving the charge or removing the evil. Every conference among educators should be directed to these questions; and when they are settled you will have rendered one of the highest services that can be rendered to this country.

If I may refer to the national aspect of your profession, I will say we can never escape Macaulay's prophecy of the downfall of the Republic, unless we do it by the aid of the schoolmaster. Macaulay said that a government like ours must inevitably lead to anarchy; and I believe there is no answer to his prophecy unless the schoolmaster can give it. If we can fill the minds of all our children who are to be voters with intelligence which will fit them wisely to vote and fill them with the spirit of liberty, then will we have averted the fatal prophecy. But if, on the other hand, we allow our youth to grow up in ignorance, this Republic will end in disastrous failure. All the encouragement that the National Government can give, everything that States can do, all that good citizens everywhere can do, and most of all what the teacher

himself can do ought to be hailed as the deliverance of our country from the saddest of destinies.

Mr. PHILBRICK followed, commenting at some length on several points brought forward by the two preceding speakers, especially combating what Dr. Loring had advanced in favor of the old fashioned, ungraded academy and in opposition to the modern graded system of schools. He also assailed General Garfield's position that the standard of elementary education has not advanced, but has actually retrograded during the past thirty or forty years.

Mr. HANCOCK said that the standard of examination for entering West Point has been raised of late years by the addition of American history as one of the topics and that the examination is much more rigid. It is not a special aim of public schools to train candidates for the Military Academy; the schools try to teach children those things which will be of use everywhere and at all times. The progress of modern life and thought has been reflected in the public school curriculum in various ways. Must all this be abandoned, and must the schools return to the old academy studies? He could not see why teachers specially trained for the work of instruction are not as likely to possess broad minds and great souls as those who had been so lauded by the preceding speakers. On the contrary, he believed the modern graded school to be superior to the old academy in extent and methods of instruction.

Mr. HOLBROOK said that Dr. Loring's remarks had emphasized and even exaggerated defects in the existing public schools of which none are or have been more conscious than the public school teachers, and which are being mitigated and diminished by none more strenuously.

President WICKERSHAM pointed out the fact that candidates for West Point are usually selected by members of Congress without reference to their intellectual or other fitness. The late Hon. Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, dissatisfied with the ill success of candidates selected by himself, with Dr. Wickersham's help, instituted competitive examinations for nomination. The highest boy at the first examination went to West Point and graduated No. 14 in his class; the first boy at the second examination graduated as No. 2 of his class; a third, selected in the same way, graduated at the head of his class. These boys had been trained in the free public graded schools of Lancaster County. The public school boys would do well enough at West Point if the politicians would give them a chance to get there.

Mr. DICKINSON next addressed the Department in defence of high schools. In alluding to the proper place and functions of the public high school in a school system, he quoted approvingly Professor Huxley's remark that "no system of public education is worthy the name unless it creates a great educational ladder with one end in the gutter and the other in the university." Mr. Dickinson continued as follows:

In some of the States pupils may pass from the high schools to the college or university with no other examination than that made at the close of the high school course.

Some think our high schools should form no part of a system of schools supported by the State, that the State should limit itself to the support of primary schools; the reasons given are —

1. That secondary instruction is not necessary to the well being of the State.
2. Only a small portion of the school population avails itself of the advantages of this instruction.

In answer to the first objection it may be said that the moral and social condition of a community of persons will be degraded in proportion as the products of their labor are inadequate to supply their spiritual and material wants. The history of all peoples shows that the products of labor to the laborer will be in proportion to the skill with which he labors. Labor will be skilled or unskilled in proportion to the high or low state of public instruction, directed first toward general culture, and secondly toward the arts which the laborer is to apply.

The truth of these statements accords with the experience of all nations in all times. A true and general culture of the people will exalt the state by laying the foundations for virtue and for skill in producing what will supply the wants of the body and gratify the taste. "I will thank any person," says Everett, "to tell why it is expedient and beneficial in a community to make public provision for teaching the elements of learning, and not expedient nor beneficial to make similar provision to aid the learner's progress toward the mastery of the most difficult branches of science and the choicest refinements of literature."

It is true that not all the pupils of the elementary schools will attend the high schools, but the latter are open alike to all who choose to avail themselves of their advantages. There will be more educated people in a town maintaining a high school than there would be without it, and the more educated people there are the greater will be the development of material resources, the more perfect the security of property and of persons, the higher the civilization, and the more complete the facilities for the unmolested enjoyment of all the objects of our natural rights.

A further argument in favor of maintaining high schools at the public expense may be made by showing, first, that they serve to give increased efficiency to the elementary schools below them. From the fact that the higher education is within the reach of *all*, pupils in the lower schools are stimulated to remain in them until they have learned all that is required to be known and have obtained all the discipline of mind required as a preparation for high school work. "Experience has proved," says Mr. Adams, of England, "that elementary education flourishes most where the provision for higher education is most ample. If the elementary schools of Germany are the best in the world, it is owing in a great measure to the fact that the higher schools are accessible to all classes. In England not only have the aims of the elementary schools been educationally low and narrow, but an impassable gulf has separated the people's schools from the higher schools of the country. In the United States the common schools have always produced the best results where the means of higher education have been the most plentiful."¹ The influence of one grade of schools upon another grade is from above downward, in so far as courses of study, amount of work done, and methods of teaching are concerned; it is from below upward just in proportion as that from above downward has succeeded in leading the elementary schools to prepare their pupils thoroughly for higher courses of study.

By the standards of admission to their classes which they establish, and the opportunities for a higher education which they offer, the high schools determine what the lower schools shall do, and they everywhere stimulate pupils to remain in the lower schools until what is required has been accomplished.

Again, the lower schools, on account of the age and attainments of their pupils, can only teach elementary knowledge, a knowledge of facts. If the high school is taken away, the opportunity to obtain free instruction in somewhat higher knowledge is taken away also. The elementary and the high school courses are parts of one whole. No system of schools would be complete without both.

¹ Free Schools of the United States, p. 211.

A knowledge of facts is of practical utility only as it lays the foundation for a knowledge of general principles. Every pupil in our public schools should be taught a method of thinking and acting. This is of more consequence than any other acquisition that can be made, for with a good method of study and the training acquired by the activity exerted in acquiring the method, the student after he leaves school can go on alone. If the high school is open to all, that, in connection with the lower schools, will have a tendency to preserve a republican equality which is always disturbed when the advantages of a higher education are limited to the few.

The existence of the high schools in towns enables the boys and girls to remain at home, as they should, under the care of judicious and faithful parents during that period of their lives when their characters are formed.

From what has been said it appears that we must preserve our high schools, and there will no danger arise to our private or public interests if they are made as efficient as possible. The academies of Massachusetts have done a grand work for the State, by educating a few who have been an honor and a blessing to the country. A few only of these noble institutions remain. In the place of them high schools have sprung up to form the missing grade in our now complete system of popular instruction, which has for its object the culture of the mind and its preparation for the high duties of an American citizen. By means of these schools we can now offer to every child born on our soil or coming to us from other lands the unrestricted advantages of an elementary and higher education.

At the conclusion of Mr. Dickinson's remarks the following resolution was presented by Mr. Hovey:

Resolved, That, in the opinion of the Department of Superintendence, the high school is a useful and necessary part of the public school system: it serves to promote efficiency in the schools of lower grades, whose pupils have hope of reaching the high school, and it enables the poor boy to prepare for the college or the university or the higher pursuits of men, and thus it becomes a conservator of republican equality and an enemy of social caste.

On motion, the resolution was laid over for the present.

The Department then adjourned to 7.30 P. M.

FOURTH SESSION—WEDNESDAY EVENING.

WASHINGTON, *December 12, 1877.*

The Department reassembled at 7.30 P. M.

Dr. J. D. KUNKLE, president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, then delivered an address on "The manual element in education." It is proposed, if circumstances will allow, to publish this paper, with the cuts necessary to elucidate it, in another pamphlet; it is therefore omitted from the present publication.

REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

At the conclusion of Dr. Runkle's address, Mr. Newell, chairman of the executive committee, was called upon for the reports which had been prepared for submission to the Department. The executive committee, with a view to the most expeditious and satisfactory disposition of the business assigned it, was on its appointment divided into several subcommittees, to each of which was allotted some particular subject to be brought before the Department. The executive committee, its various subcommittees, and the committee on the Paris Exposition were composed as follows:

Executive committee.—J. Ormond Wilson, superintendent of schools, Washington, D. C.; James H. Smart, State superintendent of public instruction, Indianapolis, Ind.; and M. A. Newell, State superintendent of public instruction, Baltimore, Md.

Subcommittee on the United States Bureau of Education and the creation of a national educational museum.—John Hancock, superintendent of city schools, Dayton, Ohio; W. K. Pendleton, general superintendent of free schools, Wheeling, W. Va.; and James H. Smart, State superintendent of public instruction, Indianapolis, Ind.

Subcommittee on national aid to education.—J. B. Bowman, regent of Kentucky University, Lexington, Ky.; M. A. Newell, State superintendent of public instruction, Baltimore, Md.; and J. P. Wickersham, State superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

Subcommittee on resolutions.—W. D. Henkle, editor *National Teacher*, Salem, Ohio; Gustavus J. Orr, State school commissioner, Atlanta, Ga.; H. S. Jones, superintendent of city schools, Erie, Pa.

Committee on the Paris Exposition.—J. P. Wickersham, State superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.; E. A. Appgar, State superintendent of public instruction, Trenton, N. J.; John Hancock, superintendent of city schools, Dayton, Ohio; Allen B. Lemmon, State superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans.; Neil Gilmour, State superintendent of public instruction, Albany, N. Y.

The report submitted by the committee on the Paris Exposition and adopted by the Department has already been given. The other reports and resolutions presented by Mr. Newell, as amended and approved, were as follows:

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM.

The subcommittee appointed to consider what action this body ought to take on the subject of a national educational museum and to report on the same, respectfully reports as follows:

1. Having inspected the valuable nucleus of a museum of education which has already been formed by the Bureau of Education, the committee would express its high appreciation of the judicious and successful efforts already made by the Commissioner of Education in securing contributions from foreign countries toward the realization of the idea of establishing a comprehensive museum of educational appliances and results here in our national capital.

2. They find that at the last meeting of the National Education Association a report on the subject was submitted admirably embodying in a condensed form a statement of (a) the origin and progress of such museums in foreign countries; (b) the purpose and utility of this new educational instrumentality; (c) an account of what has been done by the Bureau of Education in securing collections for such a museum as is contemplated. As this statement clearly presents the facts in the case, it is adopted and submitted by the committee as a part of its report.¹

3. In view of the weighty considerations which readily occur to the practical educator in favor of the establishment of a museum of education in connection with and

¹ The report submitted at the last meeting of the National Education Association referred to in the text is as follows:

The educational value of comprehensive and classified collections of articles illustrating the resources and products of different countries and of the various industries of man, has been impressed upon the world by means of the brilliant series of world's fairs, or, as they may be definitely termed, "Exhibitions of the industries of all nations," which, beginning with that of Hyde Park, London, in 1851, culminated at Philadelphia in 1876. It is no longer necessary to support the utility of such collections by argument. The term "museum," which once meant in popular estimation little more than a musty collection of useless curiosities, has been infused with new life, and now means the most active educational influence known to modern civilization. Object teaching is found to have new significance and to be of world wide application.

Educationists early saw that this power is as applicable to the rapid dissemination

as supplementary to the library of the Bureau of Education (thus forming a central repository where all the facts relating to the progress and the various needs of public

of a knowledge of the methods and appliances of the science of education as it is to that of the arts and manufactures, and the education collection begun in England by the Society of Arts and first exhibited in 1854 has become, partly by government aid and largely by individual contributions, a most important branch of the South Kensington Museum. It embraces a collection of over 20,000 volumes of educational books and many thousands of models and appliances for educational purposes; the list of these alone, brought down to the end of 1875, fills a volume of over 870 closely printed pages. Russia, Austria, and Italy have followed the example of England in establishing general educational museums; while most of the other European countries possess each several museums adapted to various branches of technical and industrial instruction.

On this continent, our neighbors of the Dominion of Canada have set the example of organizing such a collection, the value and utility of which were made evident to all by means of the remarkable educational exhibit displayed at Philadelphia by the province of Ontario.

While no governmental educational museum has ever yet been organized by the United States, the advisability of making such a collection has been realized and its creation urged.

The Exhibition at Philadelphia afforded an unprecedented opportunity for obtaining a quantity of material from the various countries of the world at the cost of little trouble and comparatively trifling expense. Unfortunately Congress made no appropriation in aid of this; in consequence, the opportunity could not be availed of in any adequate measure, and the educationists of the country were compelled to see a magnificent opportunity pass away comparatively unimproved. However, it was impossible but that much should remain. In the preparations made by the United States Commissioner of Education to secure statistical material bearing on the educational history of the past century, and in the material designed to represent the various systems and appliances of education in all its phases as presented in the United States, there was gathered in the Government Building the nucleus of a most interesting collection; most of this became the property of the Government, and needs but the natural growth and development which would follow its installation in a suitable place to become most valuable to all educators, while its value will be greatly enhanced by its conjunction with the rare and unique educational library already possessed by the United States Bureau of Education, which is being rapidly increased by means of the systematic exchange of educational publications conducted by the Commissioner with foreign officials.

Although unable to obtain anything by purchase, many gifts were made to the Commissioner by foreign individuals and governments, so that, in fact, a very large educational collection, comprising many thousands of separate articles, is now stored in Washington awaiting the action of Congress. This comprises, first, the most of the collections exhibited at Philadelphia by the United States Commissioner, viz, the statistical charts, maps, and diagrams prepared at the Bureau of Education expressly for the Exhibition, and which give a most clear and comprehensive view of the statistics of education, both public and private, in the United States; secondly, the models, publications, furniture, apparatus, and school appliances, &c., exhibited; thirdly, the views of colleges, universities, and schools, which formed such an attractive feature of the Exhibition; fourthly, the very valuable collection illustrating the progress of education among the Indians. In addition to these articles, the very complete and interesting educational exhibit made at the suggestion of the United States Commissioner of Education by the government of Japan has been presented to the Commissioner as a donation to the contemplated national educational museum. This collection is full of interest, first, as showing most clearly the habits, methods, and material of education in Japan before the contact with European civilization, and, secondly, the progress made up to 1876 in adopting the methods and appliances of European education. A complete set of mechanical and chemical apparatus manufactured by their own "school of arts and manufactures" fills one large case, while samples of school furniture now used and of all other school appliances bring into sharp contrast the old and the new.

A very fine collection of school material from the Ontario exhibit, valued at about eleven hundred dollars, which has been presented to the educational museum at Washington, fills a large room. Many valuable gifts from Austria, Germany, and Switzerland add to the interest of the collection, and show how readily, by a system of international exchange such as is carried on by the Smithsonian Institution, this educational museum at Washington could be developed into an institution where Americans could see for themselves all the new and improved educational appliances of other nations without being compelled, as now, to cross the sea. In a properly organized

education can be readily ascertained), and in view of the fact that a good beginning has already been made in laying the foundations of such a museum, the committee recommend the following resolution for adoption as the sense of this body of educational superintendents :

Resolved, That, as an important means of promoting the educational interests of the country, we regard it as the duty of Congress to make the necessary provision for the collection, installation, preservation, and care of a national museum of education in connection with the library of the Bureau of Education, and we express our earnest hope that this subject will be taken into consideration in determining the amount of the appropriation requisite to sustain and carry forward the legitimate operations of the Bureau.

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

Your subcommittee recommends the adoption of the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence express to Congress its profound conviction of the great value of the National Bureau of Education as an agency for collecting, collating, and diffusing that information which is a vital necessity to the welfare and progress of schools and school systems under a government of the people, for the people, and by the people.

Resolved, further, That we urge upon Congress the imperative necessity of making adequate and liberal pecuniary provision for the support of the Bureau, for suitable apartments for its accommodation, and for the preparation, publication, and distribution of its invaluable reports, Circulars of Information, and other documents constantly and unceasingly demanded by the great army of educational workers throughout our extended country. ✓

NATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION.

The committee appointed to consider the subject of national aid to education beg leave to report the resolutions which were adopted at the last meeting of the National Education Association, held in Louisville, Ky., August 16, 1877, which are in substance as follows:

Resolved, That the association hereby reaffirms its cordial approval of the measures which have been pending before Congress for several years, or some proper modification of the same involving the general principles of said measures, providing for the permanent investment of the proceeds of the sales of the public lands annually accruing, as a national fund, the income from which shall be apportioned among the several States and Territories and the District of Columbia (for the first ten years on the basis of the illiteracy in the several States and Territories), under the supervision of the Bureau of Education, upon a proper basis of distribution, for the benefit of common schools, normal education, and for the more complete endowment and support of the industrial and technical colleges already established in the several States under the act of Congress approved July 2, 1862.

Resolved, That a committee of fifteen members of the association be appointed by the President thereof, to act in conjunction with the committees of similar bodies, and in coöperation with the Department of Superintendence at its winter meeting, with instructions to prepare a memorial to Congress embodying the views herein expressed and urging such legislation as shall be substantially in harmony with them.

museum—wherein every department of material relating to education (whether concerning the proper building, lighting, heating, and ventilating of school rooms, and their furniture, or the best text books and apparatus) should be constantly on exhibition, arranged under intelligent supervision—it is easy to see that the educators of the country would possess the means of avoiding many mistakes and of readily keeping themselves informed of the best results of the efforts of educators throughout the world to extend, develop, and improve the all important science of education.

In view of the great necessity that is felt for some such central repository, where all the facts relating to the various needs of public education can be readily ascertained, and in view of the fact that so satisfactory a commencement has been already made toward founding a national educational museum as is shown by the collections of articles and of the educational library now in charge of the United States Commissioner of Education at Washington, it is the opinion of this committee that it is the duty of Congress to make suitable provision for the collection, preservation, and care of a national educational museum which shall meet the needs of the educators and of the public.

PUBLIC LANDS FOR THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Your subcommittee recommends the adoption of the following resolution :

Resolved, That the national capital should be treated fairly by the National Government in the disposition of the public lands in aid of the public schools; and that the equilibrium between it and the other Territories and the States should be restored by proportional appropriations of said lands or their proceeds, or an equivalent in some other form.

The reports being accepted, motion was then made that the reports be adopted as read; which was agreed to.

Mr. HENDERSON here desired to offer the following substitute for a portion of the report favoring the donation of the proceeds of the sales of public lands to the States :

Whereas the object of the States in popular education is to fit the American citizen for the intelligent exercise of his franchises and the performance of his duties; and

Whereas the common schools of the country have proven themselves and promise to continue to be the great, efficient agents for the education of the masses, and there is but little if any difference of opinion as to the right and duty of a State to confer elementary training because of the demonstrated and admitted public value of intelligence; and

Whereas the fund will not be any too large to compass these desirable ends and many of the States greatly need assistance: Therefore,

Be it resolved, That the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association heartily approves of the provisions of what is known as the Hoar educational bill now pending in the Federal Congress, which proposes to give the proceeds of the sale of public lands to the States for common school education and the support of normal schools, said distribution to be for the first ten years on the basis of illiteracy, and that we recommend and will use our influence to secure the passage of said bill.

Resolved, That a committee of fifteen be appointed to memorialize the Congress of the United States upon this subject.

Discussion followed, which was participated in by Messrs. Newell, Hancock, Orr, Pendleton, Wickersham, Tarbell, Bowman, Eaton, Barringer, Wilson, and others.

Mr. HANCOCK offered to the original report an amendment, accepted by the committee and embodied in the resolution as already printed, to the effect that the distribution should be made for the first ten years on the basis of illiteracy.

At this point an invitation was announced by General Browne, of the city school board, to the members of the Department to take supper with the president and members of the school board.

The Department then adjourned to meet at 12 o'clock the following day to conclude the business before it.

FIFTH SESSION—THURSDAY MORNING.

WASHINGTON, *December 13, 1877.*

The Department reassembled at 12.30 P. M.

Mr. SMART, from the committee on the best organization of a State school system, said the committee was not yet ready to make a report.

On motion of Mr. HANCOCK, the committee was continued, with Mr. Smart, of Indiana, as chairman and Dr. Orr added as a third member. It was directed to report at the general association at the next annual meeting.

The Department then resumed the consideration of the high school question.

THE HIGH SCHOOL QUESTION.

Mr. SMART, of Indiana, wished to divide the matter, and to consider, first, whether there should be such schools or not; then, what should be the kind and amount of instruction given in them; next, whether boys and girls should receive the same instruction in the same schools; and, finally, what the relation of the high school to superior instruction should be. He continued as follows:

These with many others are still unsolved problems. I shall, however, limit myself to a brief examination of the objections commonly urged against the high school by those who think that it ought not to exist. During the past few years I have, by letter and by personal interview, sought the opinions of prominent men in six different States upon this question. A few of them were men of national reputation, and most of them were men of influence in their respective localities. About 10 per cent. of the number were either presidents or professors of denominational schools. I exclude the opinions of all teachers of public schools and of all Roman Catholics. So far as I have been able I have also noted the position of the religious and secular press on this same point. Of this number of persons whose opinions I have obtained, 28 per cent. were decidedly opposed to the high school system, 19 per cent. were lukewarm or non-committal, and 53 per cent. were friendly to it. It was but a small minority, however, that warmly and intelligently defended it; most of them merely stated their opinions without assigning reasons therefor; but, from what I have learned from them and from what I have read, I should summarize the objections urged against the high schools as follows, viz:

1. The modern high school seeks to provide facilities for education which the common people do not need and which they ought not to have. Too much education makes a man restless and discontented with his inevitable lot, and makes him disinclined to labor. Man was born to obey; too much education makes him self-important, ambitious, unwilling to obey but desirous to command. Finally, too much education leads a man away from God and inclines him to a religion of reason.

2. Higher education is very desirable. The public high school teaches arithmetic well, but it does not and cannot teach religion. Religious instruction is as important as arithmetic. Intellectual training without religious education makes bad men. The high school draws young men and young women away from denominational schools, in which both arithmetic and religion can be taught; hence high schools ought not to be supported.

3. The public school is essentially a political institution; it is in no sense scholastic or ecclesiastic, and whenever it seeks merely to make men wiser or better or happier, it does not have in view the end for which public schools were established. The sole end and aim should be that the state may be preserved, and the minimum amount of education which will enable men to become good citizens is the maximum amount which the state may give; a knowledge of the primary branches is all that is essential to good citizenship, hence the state may furnish this and nothing more.

4. The state has the right to provide education just so far only as it compels education; or, in other words, it should provide no facilities which it cannot properly and does not compel all its children to use. All education beyond that which the state enforces upon all its children should be left entirely to associational enterprise.

5. The high school is limited to cities and towns, and is patronized by the few, and chiefly by those who are wealthy. It is unjust to levy a tax for its support upon the many who receive no benefit from it.

6. Our present school system has been enlarged and extended beyond the original purpose of its founders. The high school has been ingrafted upon the system contrary to the "original design;" hence it should be cut off.

I will indicate briefly the general course of argument I would take in answer to these various objections:

1. Is there too much education? Most of the men who say yes are either monarchists or oligarchists who believe in the divine right of the few to rule the many. Some of them are our religious fanatics, who do not believe in the freedom of the mind; and some of them are our so called utilitarians, who think that man was made to labor like a packhorse. It may be said that it is not worth while to consume time to speak of the absurd opinions of such persons; but they are not fools, and while their complaints show a want of information as to the real purpose of education, their objections have some foundation in the defects and weaknesses of our school system. We should give them a patient hearing in order that we may be able to remedy these defects. I think if we have as educators one fault which is more foolish than another, it is that we are unwilling to profit by the criticisms of men simply because we discover that they are not fully informed upon the school question. Is it not true that acquisition is with many of us still the measure of success? Do we yet fully realize that the habit of obedience to rightful authority is of more importance than the possession of knowledge? Do we yet understand that we must graduate most of our boys and girls into the practical industries of life rather than into the so called learned professions, and that ability to *use* knowledge is just as important as the possession of knowledge? Is it not true that we too often send out those who have haughty pride and are self sufficient rather than those who, having learned the way to truth, go out as humble seekers of it? And do we ourselves quite understand the difference between education, instruction, and information; that information is the brick of which the house may be made; that instruction is like the house, but without an inhabitant; and that education produces the builder and the living spirit that inhabits the house and makes it bright and beautiful? Knowledge is good, but knowledge and wisdom are commended of God, and both should be sought by men.

2. Another class of objectors is composed of those who are in favor of higher education, but who believe that boys and girls old enough to attend a high school ought to be trained in a school in which they will receive religious instruction. This class is composed chiefly of clergymen and of members of the faculties of denominational schools. They claim, and rightly too, that character is superior to scholarship; that goodness is an essential element of character, and that without suitable religious training a man is unfit to perform properly his part in life. They think that distinctive religious instruction should be commenced at the age of thirteen or fourteen, and that inasmuch as the public high school cannot give such religious training it ought not to be supported. It is even charged by many that the public schools are not performing their proper functions, and that much of the educated criminality and refined scoundrelism we see about us is directly traceable to the public schools. The New York Tribune, in a recent editorial, says:

Education of the intellect will not make men good. It will but change the nature of their criminality, and too often sharpen their wits to a point which will enable them to evade detection. There is a large and increasing body of thinkers who are of opinion that our common school system educates the intellect without enough consideration for the education of the heart, and who contend that thousands of boys and girls are annually turned out of these institutions who thus get no moral or religious instruction either at home or at school. We hope they are mistaken. But the frightful catalogue of all sorts of breaches of trust which our columns are daily presenting gives a terribly effective handle to those who hold to such theories.

Another influential journal, in quoting the Tribune, asks: "Is this the fault of our education?"

The public school professes to teach arithmetic, and it is confessed that it teaches it well. It does better than this; it teaches the child more than any other agency to respect rightful authority. This respect for law is one of the essential elements of good citizenship; it lies at the foundation of all successful family government and is one of the chief elements in religious training. The public school teaches a child to respect himself, to respect the rights of others, to honor his parents, and to obey the commandments of his Maker. Most of our teachers are God-fearing men and women, and they do seek, by precept and example, to teach a child those great moral truths that form the essence of religious training. But the public schools do not and need not attempt to teach denominational tenets. The schools cannot be called failures because they do not do this; they are not responsible for the fact that it is not done better than it is, neither are they to blame for the catalogue of breaches of trust which burdens our newspapers. Most of the petty crimes in our large cities are committed by those who do not attend the public schools, and the columns of the Tribune will show that men have to wait until they become presidents of insurance companies before they can gain the opportunity to steal millions.

While it is conceded that the public schools can do more than they now do, the home, the church, and the Sunday school have at least an equal responsibility in the matter. Nowhere in the world is there a more fit place to teach religion than in the home; the Sunday school and the church are special agencies created for this very purpose. The public school takes care of the child and teaches him for six hours in the day and for five days in the week, less than one-third of the time which he has left after giving him ample time for eating and sleeping. The church, the Sunday school, and the home may have the other two-thirds of his time, if they please, in which to teach him his religious obligations.

Now, if there be a responsibility for the fact that a child is not properly trained in his religious duties, it is quite clear to my mind that it must not be placed upon the shoulders of the schoolmaster. I believe that in this respect he performs his duty quite as successfully as the home and the Sunday school. I say in all earnestness that it is the failure of the home and of the Sunday school if failure there be.

The sad truth is that parents are not as much interested in the religious training of their children as they are in their mental training. They do not care as much for the Sunday school as they do for the day school. Tell a man that his child is quick to learn but that he is a young rascal, and he will smile; tell him that the child is dull at his books but that he is truthful and good, and he will frown. We make our day schools so attractive that the child will not stay away. Make your homes and your Sunday schools just as attractive. We employ the best teachers that money will buy; employ such for your Sunday school. We employ agencies and means that are sure to make the day school a success; the same agencies and means may be employed in the Sunday school. When parents will do their duty by the children at home; when they will go with their children to the Sunday school and see that they are there taught by experienced teachers; when they will spend as much care and time and money upon the Sunday school as upon the day school—there will be less need of charging any one with being responsible for a godless youth.

We have no quarrel with those who choose to patronize elementary denominational schools. But the charge cannot be sustained that the public high schools are at all responsible for the evils complained of.

3. The objection that a State has no legal right to support a high school has been answered over and over again. One of the ablest replies I have seen is the address delivered before the American Institute of Instruction at its last meeting by Hon. Judge Aldrich, to which I call your attention. It is not true that the school exists that the state may be perpetuated, but rather, the state exists that we may have schools. The grand purpose of life is not that we may be governed nor that we may govern, but that we may become happier, wiser, and better, and all associational enterprises should have this end in view. But how much intelligence is necessary to

enable a man to perform the functions of citizenship? The wisdom and intelligence that manifest themselves in a wise system of laws and in a perfected government must necessarily reside in the people. Good citizenship requires intelligence enough to make good laws, and patriotism enough to obey them and defend them when made. To obey is the duty of the subject; neither great wisdom nor a high degree of civilization is necessary to perform this duty. An ignorant man can be a good subject, thinking the opinions and executing the will of others, but he cannot properly exercise the functions of good citizenship. The highest form of citizenship necessitates the highest degree of intelligence. A limitation of intelligence is necessarily an abridgment of citizenship. Every voter of the State is a lawmaker. He expresses his thought through the ballot, and thus his intelligence manifests itself in the laws of the commonwealth. The truth is that independence in thinking on the part of the people is absolutely essential to the preservation of the Government. The more intelligence we put behind the ballot the more stable will our institutions become, and the more ignorance we suffer behind the ballot the sooner will they show signs of weakness and decay: the only hope of the country is in the intelligent ballot.

4. In reference to the claim that the State should provide no education that it does not compel all its children to take, I remark that those who advocate a system of compulsory attendance at school must take care lest they furnish strong arguments in favor of the limitations desired by these objectors. It seems to me that arguments in favor of a compulsory system can be turned against the high school system.

5. The argument that it is the rich few only who enjoy the advantages of the high school is one of the most persistent of all the objections urged. That the high school is a benefit to the entire community in which it is situated I shall not stop to prove. I affirm, however, that the claim that the high school is patronized by the wealthy and not by the poor is wholly without foundation; in fact, I have made inquiries in regard to several high schools, and in every case the majority of the patrons were of the poorer class. Here are the facts in reference to the Indianapolis High School. In the year 1875-'76 the whole number of patrons was 537. They paid taxes as follows:

	Number of patrons.	Per cent.
On nothing.....	130	24
On less than \$500.....	122	22
On less than \$1,000.....	19	3
On less than \$5,000.....	107	20
On less than \$10,000.....	72	13
On less than \$20,000.....	49	9
On less than \$100,000.....	30	6
On less than \$200,000.....	3	1
On less than \$300,000.....	4	1
On less than \$400,000.....	1	1

Summarizing again we have:

	Number of patrons.	Per cent.
Total number taxed on less than \$500.....	252	47
Total number taxed on less than \$1,000.....	271	50
Total number taxed on less than \$5,000.....	378	70
Total number taxed on less than \$10,000.....	72	13
Total number taxed on more than \$10,000.....	87	16

Of the whole number sixty were widows.

It may be said that this is an argument which the large taxpayers may turn against the high school. If so, let me say that the high school is one of the best agencies which we have by which property is protected. Every poor man knows that his boy has an opportunity to occupy a higher position in life than he occupies himself; he knows that there have been means provided by which his son may have an equal chance in the race of life with the son of his wealthy neighbor. This is the chief glory

of our country, and this feeling, more than anything else, makes a man a good citizen, contented with his lot. He feels that the government does something for him and more for his children. This makes him obedient to the laws and a patriotic defender of them when they are assailed. Take away the hope of the poor man that his child may occupy a higher position than he occupies himself, and the rights of property will not be as secure as they are to-day. The high school is one of the means by which the sons of the poor may climb up in the world. You may show that the wealthy pay for the high school. If they do, it is a good investment for them. A good high school is a better protection to the security of rights in property in a city than a thousand extra policeman would be.

6. The argument of "original design" is one that is used as a last resort. Suppose, for the sake of argument, that the founders of our school system did not contemplate a high school; is that any reason why men with more experience should be bound not to change and improve it? It seems to me that such an argument is absurd. There is scarcely a law on our statute books, scarcely a State constitution, that has not been revised, amended, and improved. Experience has shown that the Federal Constitution as originally constructed was not adequate to meet our wants. The whole world to-day, in its laws, in its social customs, in its achievements, and in all its institutions, presents a wonderful exhibition of departure from original design. Adherence to original design turns its back upon the perfecting future and blocks the wheels of human progress.

In the case commonly known as the Kalamazoo High School case three persons, taxpayers, asked for an injunction restraining the officer from collecting a tax in support of the high school, on the ground "that this district has no power to levy taxes for the support of high schools in which foreign and dead languages shall be taught, because the special legislation had for its benefit in 1859 was invalid for lack of compliance with the constitution in the forms of enactment, and it never adopted the general law" (Compilation of the Laws, § 3742); "though, ever since that law was enacted," Chief Justice Cooley added, "the district has sustained such a school, and proceeded on the apparent assumption that the statutes were constitutional enactments and had been complied with." He continued:

After this lapse of time we must decline to consider this objection. The district existed *de facto*, and we suppose *de jure*, when the legislation of 1859 was had, and since then it has assumed to possess all the franchises which are now brought in question; and there has been a steady concurrence of action on the part of its people in the election of officers, the levy of large taxes, and the employment of teachers for the support of a high school. The State has acquiesced in this assumption, and it has never been questioned until after thirteen years, when three individual taxpayers, out of some thousands, instituted a suit on their behalf, to which the public authorities give no countenance, and ask us to annul the franchises. To require a municipal corporation, after so long an acquiescence, to defend in a merely private suit the regularity not only of its own action but of the legislation that permitted it, could not be justified by the principles of law, much less of public policy.

I quote the opinion of Chief Justice Cooley in order to prove that an institution not directly prohibited by the constitution and existing under the forms of law, which has been generally acquiesced in by the people, ought not to be abolished simply because the constitution does not distinctly provide for its existence.

It can be shown, however, that the fathers builded wisely, and that the present system in its scope at least is not a departure from original design. I suppose that the original design of an institution may be determined by reference to the fundamental law on which it rests. The foundation upon which our school system is laid is the State constitution. Massachusetts, the oldest of the New England colonies, as early as 1636 gave voice to an "original design" in the establishment of a school of high degree at Cambridge, and in her first State constitution (chapter five, section one) declared that, "Whereas our wise and pious ancestors, so early as the year 1636, laid the foundation of Harvard College, in which university many persons of great eminence have by the blessing of God been initiated in those arts and sciences which qualified them for public employments, both in church and state; and whereas the encouragement of

arts and sciences, and all good literature, tends to the honor of God, the advantage of the Christian religion, and the great benefit of this and the other United States of America, it is declared," &c. Chapter five, section two, declares that "it shall be the duty of the legislatures and magistrates in all future periods of this Commonwealth to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all *seminaries* of them; especially the university at Cambridge, public schools and grammar schools in the towns," &c.

In the first constitution of Maine, adopted in 1819, the "original design" is found in these words: "And it shall further be their duty [the legislature's] to encourage and suitably endow, from time to time, as the circumstances of the people may authorize, all academies, colleges, and seminaries of learning within the State."

The first constitution of Indiana, adopted in 1816, among other things, provides as follows, viz:

Knowledge and learning generally diffused through a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country being highly conducive to this end, * * * it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all.

These provisions were the result of design and not of accident. The act of the Territorial Legislature, September 17, 1807, incorporating Vincennes University, and the act of the State legislature of 1820, incorporating the State university, together with the discussions in the bodies which passed these acts, prove that the spirit of the people accorded with that manifested by the framers of our first constitution.

The "original design" in regard to education in Michigan is plainly shown by her constitution and laws. The very first act of her Territorial Legislature was to incorporate a university and a high school system. By an act of 1827, the system was supplemented by the establishment of common schools. Referring to this act of 1827, the supreme court of Michigan says:

This act is worthy of attention, as indicating what was understood at that day by the common schools which were proposed to be established. It provides that every township containing fifty families shall have a school for six months in each year, in which the instruction shall embrace reading, writing, the English and French languages, arithmetic, orthography, and decent behavior; and every township containing one hundred families shall have a school for twelve months in the year, and townships numbering two hundred families shall be provided with a grammar school master, of good morals, well instructed in the Latin, French, and English languages, and shall, in addition, be provided with a teacher to instruct in the English language. The townships were required, under a heavy penalty, to be levied in case of default on the inhabitants generally, to maintain the schools so provided for.—(Code of 1827, p. 448; Territorial Laws, vol. 2, p. 472.)

This act leaves no room for doubt that grammar schools were understood in the same sense as in England and the Eastern States, and were intended to be schools where instruction should be given in the classics as well as in the higher branches of learning not usually taught in the schools of lowest grade. How, then, is it possible to say that the term common schools, as used in our legislation, has a definite meaning which limits it to the ordinary district schools, and that, consequently, taxation for their benefit cannot be made to embrace schools supported by village and city districts in which a higher grade of learning is imparted?

An inspection of the first constitution of Michigan leaves no doubt that its framers designed that the State should support high schools with a liberal hand.

The framers of the earlier constitutions of most of the Northern States held the same broad views, and so expressed them in the instruments which they made. The "original design" of the founders of our school systems did not contemplate a limitation to the merest rudiments of knowledge. They declared with singular unanimity that learning and wisdom generally diffused among the masses are essential to liberty, and that it is the duty of the State to forever establish and encourage schools, colleges, seminaries of learning, &c., for the education of the people. A limitation of public education to a few primary branches would be a departure from original design and not an adherence to it.

Rev. Dr. PATTON, president of Howard University, said that until recently he had been a citizen of Chicago; he thought highly of much of the instruction given in public high schools, but he was quite sure that there had been manifested more and more opposition to them for the last ten years, and this partly for religious and partly for literary reasons. The old fashioned academy sent many pupils to the college; the modern high school sends in comparison very few; many high schools teach Latin only, more do not teach any ancient language at all; even when they do so, their pupils seem to become tinctured with the notion that they do not need to go higher in the literary course, so that they neglect the college and enter schools of law and medicine. It has become a misnomer to call these "learned professions." Again, most of the colleges have denominational connections or proclivities; they need preparatory schools which will fit boys for collegiate studies; the public high schools failing to do this, induce the patrons and advocates of collegiate education to dread them, and to desire academies which will do this preparatory work.

Mr. BARRINGER thought that much of the opposition alluded to arises from the errors of those who manage high schools. Their courses of study often seem to result in nothing; their advocates sometimes push their theories too far. If, as he understood a gentleman from Boston to say last night, candidates for admission to colleges in that part of the country are more numerous than ever before, and high schools are also increasing in number and in scholars while academies are declining and dying out, where do the candidates for college come from, if not from the high schools? He continued by saying that in his opinion the popular mind is not yet ready to say that free public education should go further than the high school grade. Some people complain that high schools as conducted make their pupils discontented with mechanical and industrial pursuits, and the objection is often just; but the fault lies with parents, trustees, and the public quite as much as with the teachers or the school. Others object to the high schools because religion is not taught in them; but they surely could teach righteousness, truth in speech, integrity in deed, industry in work, purity in life. The school could inculcate these by every detail of its instruction and management, the teachers by every word and action of their lives.

Mr. NEWELL agreed with the last speaker that our public schools should make their pupils upright and conscientious workers in whatever situation in life their duty should call them. But he could not agree with the statement that public free education should stop at the high school. He did not wish to praise his own State, but he would say that the other States should imitate Maryland in her policy; the three colleges supported by her are open highways for poor as well as rich pupils. But his State does even more than this; if a youth of talent and promise is too poor to pay his expenses at college, the State

pays for his lodging and food and books; Maryland is now supporting fifty-five such students.

After further remarks by Mr. Sheldon, Dr. Hancock, Dr. Philbrick, and General Eaton, the subject was referred to the next meeting of the National Education Association.

The secretary read a letter addressed to the convention by Mr. G. H. La Fetra, of the General Post-Office, in which the writer urged the adoption of a phonetic system of spelling English words.

The secretary read a memorial from Dr. Edwin Leigh, of New York City, reciting the very small quantity of instruction received by at least half the school children in our great cities because of their early withdrawal from the schools, and urging that none of the little time so expended by them in school be wasted by injudicious methods of teaching. The following is an extract from this paper:

Children have *rights*, as well as men and women; and certainly among their inalienable rights, in this free and enlightened country, is the right to have secured to them at least as much of a primary education as includes the ability to read simple reading with sufficient ease and understanding of the same to make them actual readers of ordinary books and newspapers. The undersigned would therefore ask of you—

1. To use your influence to secure the extension throughout the United States of efficiently executed laws like those which have done something for the children of Massachusetts. If our free Government cannot give its children all the rights and privileges which the powerful military organization of Prussia secures for its children, yet it may do more than it has done: it may assert the rights of children in its fundamental law, and it may pass and execute laws to secure to them their rights.

2. But if we cannot immediately secure such laws and efficient execution of them, let us, at least, employ improved and more effective methods for teaching children during the very first years of their primary instruction, that the children who enjoy only these may derive the greatest possible benefit from them. In view of the facts already referred to, should not our course and method of study be shaped with special reference to the wants of this neglected half of our children, that we may use to the best advantage for their progress the little time during which we have them under our care?

Dr. Leigh's memorial gave remarkable instances, from several places, of this improved method and its results:

1. The lowest classes in the St. Louis public schools do the work in one year which used to consume two and a half years.

2. Miss Stickney, principal of the Boston Training School, has carried her pupils through the Second Reader in the same time that before was used in mastering the First Reader. Her example has been followed by other teachers, and so successfully that Superintendent Philbrick will recommend that the method be made obligatory for all the city schools. Similar results have been reached in every school where a trial has been made. The memorial continues as follows:

But the first thing to be done is to ascertain the extent and character of this evil, this deficient education of so many of our public school children. "They that be whole need not a physician, but they that are sick." When we know that we are sick and how sick we are, we are in a fair way to seek and find and apply a sufficient remedy. The undersigned would therefore ask of you to devise and adopt some simple

practical, comprehensive, and uniform method of gathering up and combining the facts and statistics on this subject.

It may be practicable, in connection with school records and school reports, to ascertain —

1. How many (on some one or more specified days in the year) are in the alphabet class, how many are in the primer, how many have finished a primer and are in a second book, how many are in a third book, and so on.

2. How many have been in school less than one year, how many one year and under two, how many two years and under three, &c.

Or it may be practicable, in connection with the school census, to ascertain, with regard to children of the school ages who have quit going to school —

1. How many only read, while in school, in a primer; how many finished a primer and were in a second book; how many read through a second book and were in a third book, &c.

2. How many attended school less than a year, how many attended one year and under two, how many attended two years and under three, &c.

It is believed that, if these or any other such classes of facts on this point be systematically collected and brought together and made known to the public, it will lead to the adoption of some more efficient means to keep the children in school and do the best for them while we have them.

The Department adopted resolutions thanking President Hayes for his expressions in favor of education in his message to Congress, and the trustees of the public schools of Washington, the officers of the First Congregational Church, the newspapers of the city, and the proprietors of the Ebbitt House for various kindnesses.

It was also determined that another meeting of like character should be called at some time during the winter of 1878-'79.

The Department then adjourned sine die.

APPENDIX B.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CONFERENCE OF THE PRESIDENTS AND
OTHER DELEGATES OF THE STATE UNIVERSITIES AND STATE
COLLEGES, HELD AT COLUMBUS, OHIO, DECEMBER 27 AND
28, 1877.

CONFERENCE OF COLLEGE PRESIDENTS AND DELEGATES.

FIRST SESSION—THURSDAY MORNING.

COLUMBUS, OHIO, *December 27, 1877.*

The conference of the presidents and other delegates of the State universities and colleges, held at Columbus, Ohio, December 27 and 28, 1877, arose out of a correspondence, undertaken by direction of the trustees of the Illinois Industrial University, in regard to the appropriate academic and professional degrees to be conferred upon the graduates of the several courses of study—classical, scientific, and technical—taught in the State colleges and universities. Eighteen institutions having pledged themselves to be represented, the call was issued.

The conference assembled in the portrait room of the Ohio State Capitol, Thursday, December 27, at 9 A. M., and was called to order by President Edward Orton, of the Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College.

On motion of President SLAGLE, of the Iowa State University, a committee consisting of President Runkle, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Vice President McKee, of the Pennsylvania Agricultural College, and Prof. G. W. Atherton, of Rutgers College, New Jersey, was appointed to nominate permanent officers. The committee reported the following names :

For president, J. M. Gregory, president of the Illinois Industrial University.

For vice president, S. S. Laws, president of the Missouri State University.

For secretary, Prof. J. R. Smith, of the Ohio Mechanical and Agricultural College.

These gentlemen were unanimously elected, and Dr. Gregory accepted the chair with a short speech expressive of his sense of the interest of the occasion.

Professor ATHERTON moved that, in order that the meeting might be properly understood and its true character maintained, it should be termed a conference and not a convention. This motion was concurred in.

Presidents Orton and Slagle and Professor Atherton were appointed a permanent committee on the business of the session.

While the committee was absent, President GREGORY stated briefly the origin and purposes of the conference and the interest which had been expressed in it by the presidents of the several State institutions throughout the country. The topics on the printed programme presented

had been suggested by different presidents in several sections of the Union as of personal or local interest to them.

The business committee recommended that the programme be followed in the first two topics, and that throughout the conference the several topics, after discussion, be referred each to a special committee with instructions to report to the conference by resolution or otherwise. The report was adopted.

COLLEGIATE DEGREES.

President GREGORY, calling Vice President Laws to the chair, then proceeded, according to programme, to present his paper on the subject of college degrees. The following abridgment includes its most important points.

In discussing the subject of college degrees three principal questions confront us:

1. Ought our American colleges to continue the use of degrees?
2. What degrees, if any, ought to be granted?
3. On what conditions ought these degrees to be given?

1. After stating some of the objections to degrees, the paper showed that their use is so interwoven with our entire system of higher education that no college can easily dispense with them. The writer represents an institution in which the experiment has been tried, and the result has been unsatisfactory. It was our alumni themselves who, finding themselves embarrassed by their lack of the usual symbol of graduation and convinced that the university was suffering loss in students and in public respect from this cause, petitioned the State Legislature to give to the trustees authority to bestow the usual and appropriate degrees.

Counting that the usage must go on, we need only consult for the means to render these degrees more truly significant and trustworthy as symbols of scholarship and as evidences of literary or scientific attainments. The present usage is often confused and unintelligible, and sometimes dishonorable and degrading. We need not enumerate the abuses: they are unfortunately too well known already, and to no one better than to our college faculties.

Propositions for reform have not been wanting. It has been proposed to take away from all colleges the power to grant degrees, and to lodge it in a State board of regents or examiners, to whom all candidates must apply. This would virtually make all the colleges of a State parts of a State university. This plan would doubtless cure many of the evils from which we are suffering, and might afford many special advantages; but I fear the time is far distant when the smaller and poorer institutions will consent to surrender a privilege so profitable, if not so necessary, to their existence.

2. The second question, that which touches the number and kinds of degrees to be granted, is more difficult. In the Middle Ages, when education was much briefer in its courses and much narrower in its aims;

when the old trivium and quadrivium constituted the studies of an entire university, and the chief use of education was to prepare divinity students for their work—the simple degrees of bachelor of arts and master of arts, and the doctorates of divinity, philosophy, and of laws, filled all the requirements. For centuries these, with some modifications of meaning to meet new studies, covered the whole field of the higher education. But with the modern enlargement of science and learning, and with the rise of new courses of study to prepare for new professions and avocations, our leading colleges have been driven to the introduction of new symbols to represent their work and reward their graduates. These new degrees have been chosen without concert or harmony, and their use is accordingly confused and irregular. For the sake of the great public concerned, and for the sake of the cause of learning itself, this confusion ought if possible to be arrested and a harmony of usage introduced.

Our college and university courses of studies are now of two classes, scholastic or educational, and technical or professional. We may assume that the scholastic or proper educational courses embrace (1) the old classical course, with its several modifications; (2) the scientific course, the staple studies of which are the natural sciences, the mathematics, and some studies in literature, history, and philosophy; and (3) a medium course, variously constituted, but made up chiefly of extended studies in the English and other modern languages and literatures, including often the Latin also and some due proportion of history, science, and philosophy. This last course already shows signs of parting into two distinct courses, each of which looks more or less directly toward a field of practical life. The first course coming from this cleavage includes a large proportion of linguistic studies, especially a full and critical study of the English literature, such as that taught by Professor March and already in use at several leading institutions. It includes also a fuller and more critical and effective study of the modern languages, for practical use, and a due measure of mathematics, science, history, and philosophy. This course is especially valuable to the student who seeks to prepare himself for the work of the press, as editor, publisher, or author. The second course already appearing in some institutions from the cleavage is made up in a large measure of social science studies, history, political philosophy, constitutional and international law, logic, and metaphysics, without omitting languages, mathematics, and science. This seems adapted to the wants of the future lawyer and statesman.

It happens that the four degrees which are most appropriate to these four courses of study have already come into use, though not always with the same application and significance. These degrees are B. A., bachelor of arts; B. S., bachelor of sciences; B. L., bachelor of letters; and PH. B., bachelor of philosophy. The PH. B. is in use in Yale and in several other prominent colleges, and the B. L. in Cornell and in the State universities of Wisconsin and Missouri.

These four degrees would cover the strictly educational courses thus far known in the better American colleges. But besides these courses there are several technical courses for which some appropriate symbol seems to be demanded. Leaving out of sight the older studies of law, medicine, and theology, we have civil, mining, and mechanical engineering, architecture, agriculture, and chemistry. The usage most favored at present gives to all these technical and scientific courses the simple B. S., and reserves the full degrees of civil engineer, mining engineer, &c., to be conferred as a master's degree, after additional professional studies and practice.

3. The third and the most difficult of the questions to be met in this matter of degrees is that of the conditions on which they ought to be granted. The usage is diverse, and it will be difficult to establish and maintain any uniform standard. Similarity of courses is by no means a sure guarantee of equality of attainments: to make a course of study on paper is as easy as it is insignificant; some better test is needed than a pretentious catalogue. It is at this point that the State universities and colleges may work together for a great public good. If they can agree upon some uniform standard, it will go far toward the establishment of a general standard for all of the respectable colleges of the country.

There are two distinct bases on which college degrees may be granted:

1) the satisfactory completion of some prescribed course of studies, and (2) a final examination and the ascertainment of prescribed attainments of knowledge. The latter of these is in use in European universities; in America, college degrees represent uniformly the completion of prescribed courses of studies. It may be doubted whether any change in this respect would be accepted.

In fixing a general standard, it may be assumed, in the first place, that some amount of preparatory study will be required between the common school studies and the college studies proper. These preparatory studies may vary in kind, but should be equal to the work of two years in amount. It may also be assumed that the college studies shall be equal to the work of four academic years, and shall contain some due amount of linguistic studies, a fair proportion of mathematics, and some studies in history, science, and philosophy. Beyond this nothing is fixed, unless it be that the degree of A. B. shall be given only for the so called classical course in the two ancient languages. In making up its several courses each institution must be left free to consult its own limiting conditions, internal and external. What is essential is equivalency, not identity, of studies.

The reading of the paper was followed by a discussion.

President C. L. C. MINOR, of Virginia Agricultural College, said he desired to hear the question discussed, though his institution was not as yet interested in it.

Professor ATHERTON said that at Rutgers College the two degrees of A. B. and B. S. are in use; PH. B. is given as an honorary degree. The

master's degree is given in course, but it is soon to be restricted to those who earn it by study after graduation. He believed the use of degrees to be so interwoven with our educational system that they cannot be dispensed with, and their utility is not to be questioned: they have a strong influence in holding students to a full course of studies.

President RUNKLE stated that at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology the degree of B. S. is given for each of the technical courses, but in the diploma the name of the special school is added after the B. S. The degree of C. E., civil engineer, &c., is given only after graduate study and professional practice. The Institute gives the two degrees of A. B. and B. S. He fully concurred in the utility of degrees.

Professor MCKEE, of Pennsylvania Agricultural College, said that his college confers the degrees of A. B. and B. S. He condemned the practice of giving honorary degrees. His institution had steadily refused to grant such degrees, though often importuned for them.

President LAWS affirmed strongly the propriety and value of degrees. He said they should always represent real attainment and should be earned by genuine work. He said that the University of Missouri uses all the degrees named in the paper, B. A., B. S., PH. B., and B. L. The use of the last two is not well defined. He thought that mathematics should constitute the backbone of the course for the B. S. The complimentary degrees of D. D. and LL. D. simply mean nothing. The master's degree once meant something, but when given, as now, in course, it also means nothing. Degrees should be bestowed not as decorations, but for acquisition.

The conference then adjourned for dinner. Assembling again at 2 P. M., the subject was resumed.

President ORTON, of Ohio, stated that the studies of the Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College are divided into three schools: school of natural history, school of the exact sciences, and school of letters. The degrees of B. S., A. B., and C. E. are granted solely as indices of the completion of a six years' course, two of these years being preparatory and common to the three schools. The sciences have the lion's share in this two years' course, the literary studies being confined to one term. The best teaching talent of the college is employed on this course.

The subject was now referred to a special committee consisting of Messrs. Atherton, Minor, and Orton.

SCIENTIFIC STUDIES AND COURSES OF STUDY.

This topic was opened by a short extemporary address by Dr. J. D. Runkle, of Massachusetts.

President LAWS said that mankind teaches what is known. Formerly only the languages, mathematics, and logic were known, and so these were taught. The sciences have become well known only of late years, and now must be taught. He declared that there is no antagonism; the languages and mathematics must still hold a chief place among disciplinary studies.

President MINOR referred to the fact that from the law of impenetrability, if new studies go in, some old ones must go out.

Professor N. S. TOWNSEND, of Ohio, said that he did not dispute the value of the study of the languages, but he wished to affirm the equal value of the natural sciences.

President SLAGLE, of Iowa, asked how the views presented agree with the statement that the aim of education is to produce thoroughly disciplined, well balanced men. Is this consistent with the claim of equality for very different courses of study?

President GREGORY replied that at the dinner table he had noticed each one called for different meat. Some took roast beef, some turkey, some mutton, and so on; but all had been nourished and invigorated. There is no ideal study best for all persons. Our mental appetites and constitutions differ as much as our physical. And, after all, as has been said here, the method of teaching a study has quite as much to do with its disciplinary effect as the nature of the study itself. He had known the ancient languages and the mathematics taught in such a miserable way that they were nearly useless. He did not think it quite true that men always teach what they know: there is fashion in studies as in everything else. The real question before us is how to make place for the scientific studies. All men recognize their value and importance as knowledge, and their vital connection with modern arts and public well being. No one seriously denies their right to a place in our college curricula. If admitted, they must necessarily crowd out some part of the old studies, and this makes it necessary that they be so taught as to have their full disciplinary effect. To do this their elements must be taught in our common schools, so that their mere alphabet shall not detain the college student. Furthermore, they must be taught in accordance with their own laws. They are properly sciences of observation, and must be studied by means of observation. In studying language in a book, we have before us the real language studied. So with mathematics, the real numbers and forms to be studied are in the book; but the real botany and chemistry and zoölogy cannot be put in a book. If studied as they exist in nature, they will compel as active exercise of original, discriminating judgment as does a lesson in Latin. No one proposes to dismiss language studies from the college curriculum; their value is too obvious to all scholars to call for debate. But let them be taught by such methods and confined to such limits as will give us their best effects, and we shall have abundance of time for the new scientific studies desired. And it has not yet been fully tested what disciplinary power there is in the English and other modern languages. The efforts of Professor March and others have shown us that the critical study of the English language and literature can produce a culture as fine as that ordinarily given by the Latin. In the Illinois Industrial University, the study of English literature extends through a term of three years. The study of specified authors of the several periods of our

literature is made as critical as the study of Latin authors in the classical course, and if the ability of the students to write good essays is taken as the test then this study is not inferior to that of the ancient languages as a means of fine culture and mental development.

Professor **ATHERTON** concurred in the views presented by the address of President **Runkle**, and emphasized still more the importance of right methods in teaching.

The debate was further continued by President **Orton** and others; but, unfortunately, no sketch of their remarks was secured. The topic was referred to a committee on final report, consisting of President **Runkle**, Professor **McKee**, and Professor **Townsend**.

President **ORTON**, from the business committee, reported several changes in the programme for to-day and to-morrow, and recommended that the session of Friday morning be held at the Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College. The report was agreed to. Adjourned till 7 P. M.

SECOND SESSION—THURSDAY EVENING.

COLUMBUS, OHIO, *December 27, 1877.*

The meeting was called to order at 7.30 P. M., and, the secretary being absent, Professor **McFarland**, of the Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College, was appointed secretary pro tempore.

The regular business of the evening was proceeded with according to programme.

President **ORTON** read the "Report on the military system in State colleges: its enforcement or repeal." He said:

I shall make my paper somewhat narrower in scope than the title as stated in the programme would seem to demand, and shall consider the subject of military instruction and drill in such State colleges particularly as are founded upon the congressional land grant of 1862. The general argument applies, of course, to all grades of State colleges, but between the group of them that I have already named and others there is this well marked difference: the latter can discuss the subject at their pleasure, and take such action on it as seems wisest; the former are expressly required, by the terms of the law to which they owe their origin, to include military tactics in their courses of instruction. They can discuss the desirability, the practicability, the extent of such instruction, but this instruction, in some shape or other, they are bound to supply. It is open to them certainly to seek the repeal of the clause which now holds them to this duty, and it is also their privilege to urge the General Government to make a larger provision for it than has thus far been made.

I take it that there are some who regret the presence of this provision in the act of 1862. It is argued that this requirement was made at an exceptional period in our history, when the country was convulsed with civil war, and when a new and inordinate value was attached to military knowledge and training; that since the days of peace have returned our swords should be beaten into ploughshares and our spears into pruning hooks and our sons required to learn the ways of war no more.

Those who hold this view are likely to yield but a perfunctory obedience to the mandatory provision of the law; and, in view of the fact that no measure of time spent or knowledge gained needs to be returned, it is, of course, possible to reduce the whole demand to an impalpable and unoppressive minimum. The provision then remains an offence rather than a burden.

In opposition to this dissatisfaction and dissent, I wish to urge very briefly that the military requirement was wisely introduced into the organic law, and that military drill constitutes a permanently valuable feature in our processes of education. I believe that our duty and interest lead us to seek the enforcement, the reinforcement, if necessary, of the military system, as it is now laid down, rather than its reduction or repeal. I remark, then, first, that it is *desirable* that military instruction should be given in these institutions.

The knowledge and the practice of the military art are essential to the maintenance of a state. Thirty years ago, in my college days, I read with youthful enthusiasm the prize essays of the American Peace Society. The monstrous character of war, the dreadful miseries it causes, its utter uselessness, were painted in such startling colors, and yet with such apparent truthfulness, that I innocently thought the world must be convinced and converted, and that it would be given to my generation, perhaps, to see the last battle flag furled, and to hear the last throb of the war drum; but the remorseless logic of events has swept these dreams away. With Sebastopol, Sadowa, Sedan, and Plevna to take their places in history during the interval; nay, more, with blood to the horses' bridles in our own valleys, I have forgotten the prize essays; and I see that this selfish, unjust, tyrannical human nature of ours cannot yet be hushed by the voice of such a charmer, charm he never so wisely.

The railroad riots of last July rudely awoke the thoughtful people of the great Middle States from their dreams of security. A change of great moment has been in progress in the country during the last few decades. From a homogeneous agricultural community, with its assured supplies and established order, we have seen the growth on every hand of great manufacturing centres, with their ever increasing armies of improvident laborers. When times are prosperous, all live lavishly; but when fortune turns her wheel, as she is sure to do, then envy and want threaten the very existence of society. We shall gravely err if we consider this outburst of mid-summer madness in the light of an accident, the conditions for which may never again occur. It is rather the first outbreak of a deep seated disease of the body politic, which may yet make the whole head sick and the whole heart faint. The remedy—is there *any* remedy for the wickedness and want of a great city!—can never be found in grapeshot or minie bullet; but *protection* can come from nothing else.

Who shall give this protection? Many find an easy answer to this question in a large and efficient standing army. For myself, I fear such a protector as much as I do the foe. Such an army would be largely drawn from the very ranks against which its arms must be raised. *The interests that are imperilled must defend themselves.* The wealth of the community, which stands in a general way for the forethought, the energy, the wise self-denial of the present and past generations, the culture, the moral force of the community, must take care of themselves, and I am not sure that in this war there is any discharge. I am not sure that the public order can be maintained by mercenaries: the hireling will flee when he sees the wolf coming.

Nothing is of more moment to the State than that its educated class should be qualified to be its actual leaders in such crises. The fact that military organization exists in the community, or is easily possible, that there is enough military knowledge in it to set in order its defences, these facts in themselves constitute no mean element in the maintenance of the public safety.

I urge, then, that it is desirable that these State institutions should impart a measure of military knowledge and training, because of the value of this knowledge to the State, a value that can be clearly recognized at the present time and which it is certain will not grow less. I add that such instruction is desirable on other grounds, because of certain incidental advantages that it brings. I refer, in the first place, to the physical training that it gives.

I believe that our systems of college and university training are grievously at fault in this respect: that they make no orderly or adequate provision, and generally no provision at all, for physical training at precisely the time in life when such training is of the most moment. I will not digress to discuss this very important question, but

I observe that the military drill which I advocate, though far from being a complete system of physical training, makes no mean contribution to this department. All there is of it is profitable. The posture, the movements, the bearing and gait it prescribes, are all helpful to a high degree. Nothing serves more effectually than this to break "the awkward shackles of the plowboy's walk." The transformations that a month of efficient training works in this respect are remarkable.

Again, I value military drill in college for the lessons that it gives in the matter of obedience to authority. I am sure that you will all agree with me when I say that such a lesson is well worth the learning, from whatever source it comes. The youth of the country, or, if without invidious distinction I may discriminate between the different sections, the youth of the West, are in great danger of never learning the needful lesson of prompt obedience to constituted authority. But prompt and unquestioning obedience to authority is the soul and essence of military discipline. Like Providence, it knows no great or small, but makes as much of "eyes right" as of "Up, guards, and at them"—for the man who has not learned to obey the first will never be ready for the last command.

I confess to a feeling of inward satisfaction when I see a company of this independent order of young Americans obliged to stand and step, to advance and retreat, at the peremptory command of the military leader. I am sure the lesson is worth learning, and that the reflex influence is of service in other departments of college discipline. Nor do I think lightly of the lessons to be learned from a thorough military inspection, especially if executed by a West Point officer. An officer finds it his duty to notice and punish the lack of neatness or personal cleanliness which the rest of us are forbidden to take cognizance of, however prominently they may be obtruded on our various senses. This official plain speaking is very often the first personal call that the offender has ever heard to the cleanliness which is next to godliness.

I argue, in the second place, that military drill in these State colleges is practicable. The first portion of my argument would be of little value, even though its conclusions could not be disproved, if this point of practicability cannot be established. The young men who are gathered in these institutions are at the very age when this discipline can be secured with the greatest economy of time and trouble. If we were to choose from all the citizens of the State those who are in the best position to learn most easily and to retain most tenaciously the system of military tactics, we should, after making a full survey, be obliged to come to the doors of our high schools and colleges. When now it is added that thorough instruction can here be given in military tactics without trenching upon any other field or diminishing any other acquisition, I think it will appear that the State would be derelict in duty if it did not insist on making this demand. I am prepared to go further. I believe that an efficient system of military instruction can be introduced into a college course with positive advantage to the ordinary departments of college work. The element of physical training and exercise, to which reference has already been made, can be so used as to increase the students' efficiency. There is that withholdeth more than is meet in this regard, and it tendeth to poverty. Take a common case. A student has three morning recitations or lectures coming in consecutive order, at 9, 10, and 11 o'clock. By the time that two recitations are completed, the attention is wearied, the memory dulled, and the powers of acquisition for the third hour are certainly lowered beyond the point of profitable attendance. Now, at 11 o'clock, introduce thirty or forty minutes of military drill in the open air—energetic, efficient military drill—and let the third hour be pushed forward by the same measure. This hour now becomes as good an hour as there is in the day. The efficiency of the morning hours has been positively increased by the addition of the drill. But it is not in such a programme only that drill can find a profitable place. The system can be adjusted to any schedule. I have been gratified to learn, as I have lately done, that the Western Reserve College has adopted the military system in full, and has secured from the General Government the detail of a West Point officer to conduct it. Its schedule is the usual one of the

eastern colleges, and its course is the time honored American college course; and yet they claim the happiest results from their short experience.

I assert, then, with all confidence, that experience has abundantly demonstrated what theory would warrant us in expecting, viz, that it is in every way practicable to introduce military drill into college instruction.

I inquire, in the third place, to what extent should the military system be introduced into the State colleges? My answer, in the briefest terms, is this: *We should make a great deal of it for a very short time.* I should count five hours a week a maximum of time to be given to it and two and one-half hours a minimum; but with the lower limit I should be well content. If it is objected that in so short a time as half an hour a day no results of permanent value can be obtained, no habits of military order established, I answer that the capabilities of our college students in this regard are underrated. President Runkle, of Massachusetts, in his lecture on the "Russian system of hand training," shows that intelligent tuition can bring the wakeful minded student of the polytechnic schools to master in hours what the plodding apprentice will require months or even years to acquire. The same line of facts can be noted here.

Intelligent tuition is a sine qua non in establishing the military system in colleges. For myself, I should be satisfied with nothing less than a graduate of West Point as instructor, and I should not be satisfied with him unless he magnified his office. I think that the State colleges have a right to demand that the General Government shall make provision for their necessities in this respect before like favors are dispensed among the denominational colleges.

Military discipline, I repeat, must be made rigid and exacting while it lasts. There is no surer way to bring the system into contempt than to play fast and loose in administering it. For the brief time that the student is a soldier let him be treated as one, held to strictest account for all the minutiae of the drill, however frivolous they may seem in the civilian's eye. Let the penalties for disobedience be military as far as possible; but it is obvious that, at the last, the drill must rest on common college law. Attendance can be secured only in this way.

It is scarcely necessary for me to say, after this, that in my view the drill must be made obligatory. It must be required of all young men, and must stand on the same ground with other college duties. Exemption will of course be granted for physical disability or for conscientious scruples.

To establish military drill as a voluntary exercise is, in my judgment, altogether inadvisable. Such a system is a foredoomed failure. We can count it settled, I think, that no motives drawn either from self-interest or public spirit will ever bring a body of college boys steadily and punctually to recitation room, to chapel, or to drill. Too many and too potent tendencies of nature are arrayed against such regularity and painstaking.

A college uniform is also essential to the successful establishment of military instruction. There are incidental advantages connected with a uniform that recommend it even to some who value but lightly the military feature in itself. It tends to promote an esprit de corps among students which may be made a very serviceable force. It abolishes the distinctions between the rich and the poor on college ground, a point of no small importance. It often acts as a profitable restraint upon him who wears it, by making him know that the good name of others as well as his own is intrusted to his keeping.

But whatever advantage a uniform may render to the college in such ways as these, it is indispensable to military drill. A young man must look like a soldier before he will act like one.

I count also a full equipment of arms and accoutrements necessary to the successful working of the system. Here I think we can make a just demand upon the Government. Every State college should be able to secure the detail of a West Point graduate and the use of a full set of arms and equipments for the service of this department. I venture to repeat what I said in substance a few moments since, that it

seems altogether proper that the children should first be fed. The number of officers that can thus be detailed for purposes of instruction is at present, I believe, twenty; I am very sure that the state would be the gainer if twice that number at least of those that are apt to teach should be recalled from the aimless and comparatively useless life of garrison or fort and placed at these formative centres.

Let me, in conclusion, guard my words against misinterpretation. I do not count the military system in colleges the centre around which they ought to revolve or the end for which they were created; but I see in it a valuable feature which may easily be ingrafted upon our educational scheme, and which may be made to minister to the physical well being of the student, to the improvement of college work, and to the service and safety of the State.

As a summary of what I have brought forward, I beg leave to offer the following resolution, which I can hardly expect to prevail, viz:

Resolved, That in the judgment of this conference the provision of the law of 1862 which requires the teaching of military tactics in the institutions founded on the land grant is just and wise; and, furthermore, that we do heartily commend to all these institutions the establishment and maintenance of an efficient system of military instruction, in the assurance that it cannot fail to render very valuable service, both to college and to State.

President LAWS, of Missouri, thought that the making of military drill compulsory would not be wise; but this opinion, he said, was but theoretical.

President SLAGLE, of the Iowa University, said that, in his observation, military instruction in colleges is very valuable. He considered that the students would learn a great deal in merely keeping their guns clean and keeping them in their proper places. The drill at the college he is connected with is an hour every day, and the students regularly accept it, as a rule. The students at that college have no uniforms, but he thought that uniforms are essential. The purchasing of suits is not compulsory in that State, but the drill is. President Slagle favored President Orton's paper.

President MINOR, of Virginia, spoke in favor of military instruction in colleges.

President RUNKLE, of Massachusetts, said that the military discipline that is being taught in the schools of that State is a valuable element in promoting the interests of the college. Three hours a week are devoted to military instruction.

Professor ATHERTON, of Rutgers, New Jersey, said that he had found college military instruction a failure in the New Jersey schools. He said that military tactics would be taught hereafter in the colleges there by lectures.

Mr. SULLIVANT, of Columbus, spoke in favor of making military drill compulsory. He claimed that in making it optional it would not amount to anything.

Professor MCFARLAND, of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, claimed that this compulsory education in military tactics under a competent man would bring forth grand results.

President GREGORY, of Illinois, said that the drill at the institution in that State is a success. The military drill is compulsory, and he did not believe it would be a success if it were not so. The military

students are uniformed after the first term, only having to purchase a cap the first term. About three hundred students belonged to the military class during the last year. At the close of the course, those having served as captains and first lieutenants who were in good standing were recommended to the governor of the State, and he issued them commissions according to their rank as a reward. He thought that it would be good for the United States to provide for the highest military instruction throughout the State. He stated that West Point is only considered a second class military school by other nations.

The resolution was referred to a committee of three, consisting of President Orton, Professor McFarland, of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, and President Minor, of Virginia.

After a few remarks by Professor ATHERTON, President MINOR, and President GREGORY respecting congressional appropriations for scientific and technical education, it was determined that the subject be resumed next morning.

The conference then adjourned till 9.30 A. M.

THIRD SESSION—FRIDAY MORNING.

COLUMBUS, OHIO, *December 28, 1877.*

The conference met at 10 A. M., pursuant to adjournment. The reading of the minutes of the proceedings of the preceding day was dispensed with, and the order of business was taken up.

General JOHN EATON, United States Commissioner of Education, was present, and on invitation spoke briefly on the topic laid over from the previous session, namely, "New congressional appropriations for scientific and technical education." He prefaced his remarks with a congratulatory address to the conference on its assembling, and a statement of the kind and importance of the work to be done by State institutions. General Eaton also set forth the value of such institutions as these to the industrial classes of the nation.

The topic was further discussed by President MINOR and President LAWS, and then was referred to a special committee, consisting of President Orton, Professor McKee, and Professor Atherton.

President LAWS, of Missouri, read a lengthy article pertaining to 'University education: its scope and aim.' He divided the subject into three parts: First, the aim of university education; second, its scope, which will largely depend on its aim; and, third, the relation of such work to outside work in the sphere of education and elsewhere. He said that the true scope of university work is to find and group together those departments which will be most efficient in maintaining and transmitting our civilization. He also considered the relations existing between the public school and university education, and claimed that university education is laid down in history as the basis of both high and common school education.

President ORTON, from the committee on congressional appropriations, submitted the following report :

Your committee beg leave to recommend that the subject of additional appropriations for the institutions established under the act of 1862 be referred to a committee of five, consisting of Prof. G. W. Atherton of New Jersey, President J. M. Gregory of Illinois, President C. L. C. Minor of Virginia, President J. B. Bowman of Kentucky, and President W. W. Folwell of Minnesota, who shall be authorized to represent this conference at Washington, to confer with other institutions of the class represented here, to cooperate with committees appointed for similar purposes by other organizations, and to labor by all appropriate means to secure the additional legislation needed upon this subject.

Your committee further recommend that the institutions interested in this legislation be urged to enlist in its favor whatever congressional support they can influence.

And, finally, that to defray the necessary expenses of this committee a contribution of \$25 is hereby requested from each of the institutions represented here, to be paid to President Edward Orton, of Columbus, Ohio, and to be by him disbursed to the several members of the committee on their individual vouchers, any balance to be returned pro rata to the institutions contributing.

The report was adopted and referred to the committee on final report, and it was resolved that all special reports hereafter be so referred.

Letters from several college presidents were read regretting their inability to be present.

On motion, adjourned to meet in governor's room at 3 P. M. for the last public session of the conference, the evening session to be devoted to the private consideration of special and final reports.

FOURTH SESSION—FRIDAY AFTERNOON.

COLUMBUS, OHIO, *December 28, 1877.*

Called to order at 3.30 P. M., the conference took up the topic left over from the morning, viz, "University education."

A telegram from President FOLWELL, of Minnesota, and a letter from President Porter, of Yale College, were read.

A special committee on the topic of university education was appointed, consisting of President Laws, Professor McKee, and President Minor.

The topic of "Governing bodies in colleges and universities" was laid on the table for the present.

The chairman appointed President Orton and Professor Atherton to serve with him as committee on final report.

The chairman offered a few remarks on the subject of obtaining further appropriations from Congress. Remarks were also made by Professor Atherton and President Laws.

President Minor, President Orton, and Professor Tuttle were appointed a committee on the topic of "Governing bodies."

Adjourned till 7 P. M.

FIFTH SESSION—FRIDAY EVENING.

COLUMBUS, OHIO, *December 28, 1877.*

The conference was called to order by President Gregory, at 8 P. M. The minutes of the sessions thus far were read and corrected.

President ORTON then read a letter from President J. Bascom, of Wisconsin State University.

President ORTON offered the following as his report on "The governing powers of universities and colleges:"

Your committeeman, appointed on the governing powers of the university, begs leave to report that a very suggestive paper on this subject has been put into his hands by President John Bascom, of Wisconsin; but that in default of time for the careful consideration by the conference of the questions involved he is not prepared to recommend for adoption any definite action beyond the following points, viz:

1. The internal management of the university or college, including the conditions of entrance, the courses of study, and the discipline, should be intrusted to the college faculty, and that for its administration of the institution the faculty should cheerfully recognize its responsibility to the regents or trustees.

2. The president of the institution, as the representative of the faculty, should in all cases be entitled to a seat if not a voice in the board of regents or trustees.¹

Professor MCKEE offered the following report of the committee on scientific studies, which was adopted and referred:

Resolved, That the experience gained in the colleges established on the congressional land grant or enjoying its benefits justifies this conference in bearing testimony not only to the objective value of the exact and natural sciences but also to the great disciplinary value of their thorough study. At the same time this experience furnishes no reason for the exclusion of classical and linguistic studies as elements of the liberal education which these institutions are designed to give.

The committee on degrees presented its report, which was, on motion, considered seriatim.

The introduction, on motion, was adopted.

Part first, on classification of degrees, on motion, was adopted.

Part second, stating that no academic degree not honorary should be granted which is not equivalent to the degree of B. A. as generally accepted, was adopted and referred.

Part third, recommending the addition of the degrees of B. L. and PH. B. to the academic degrees of B. A. and B. S., was, with one or two modifications, adopted and referred.

Part fourth, providing for the raising of the degree of B. S. to a rank equal to that of B. A., was adopted, with the exception of one clause, which was referred to the committee on final report.

Parts fifth and sixth were adopted and referred.

The report as a whole was adopted and referred.

The committee on final report was authorized to call a future meeting of the conference if desirable; the committee was also authorized to collect information in regard to the degrees in the various institutions.

On motion, the conference adjourned sine die.

¹The other members of this committee did not find time for the consideration of the subject involved.

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